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# East Europe Report

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25 SEPTEMBER 1986

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## VETERINARIANS STUDY FARM ANIMAL POISONING BY CHEMICAL AGENTS

Jena MONATSCHEFT FÜR VETERINÄRMEDIZIN in German Vol 41, No 13, 1986  
pp 433-435

[Article by K.-G. Theimann and H.-J. Kowalski of the Cottbus Bezirk Institute for Veterinary Practice. Submitted on 8 Jan 86. Topics concerned: Farm animals, Sources of Poisoning, Prophylaxis, Diagnosis. Original title: "Case of Poisoning of Farm Animals--Conclusions for Prophylaxis". First paragraph is source's English summary.]

[Text] Reference is made in this paper to several cases of poisoning of farm animals in the Region of Cottbus over the last decade. These had been caused by chemical noxae, such as nitrate, nitrite, urea, ammonia, boric acid, ethylene glycol, and manure gas. Conclusions are drawn on how to prevent poisoning by appropriate prophylaxis. Particular importance is attributed, in this context, to stringent observance of legal provisions, established codes of practice regarding the use of chemicals, and professional duties. Reported are recent insights with regard to more effective laboratory diagnosis for adequate treatment of intoxication cases due to the above noxae.

Dangers to farm animal stock result from the use of chemically very diverse substances in the form of solutions, emulsions, suspensions and powder and salt mixtures when the existing safety regulations are not heeded. It can be stated, in agreement with Laue (1968), that disregard of legal requirements, guidelines for use, or professional duties underlies all acute cases of poisoning. Even if poisoning of farm animals does not take a prominent position in the total complex of causes of damage, they nevertheless represent a considerable disruptive factor, the removal of which leads to a not insignificant degree of increase in production safety and improved economic yield.

In the past decade (1974 to 1984), extremely diverse toxic noxae led to many instances of injury to agricultural livestock in the production areas of cattle, sheep, pigs and fowl in the district of Cottbus, of which the main ones are listed in Table 1. Intensive cooperation between the district veterinarians, practicing veterinarians, animal and fodder producers, and crop protection firms was of decisive importance to rapidly reaching a position on diagnosis. In the majority of the animal poisonings, thorough toxicological field research was able to make a purposeful contribution to an explanation of the causes in chemical-toxicological laboratory investigations.

## Nitrate/Nitrite Noxe

In recent years, a decreasing tendency towards farm animal poisoning by nitrate/nitrite can be observed. The compulsory effect of the ordinance of the GDR Ministry for Agriculture, Forestry and Food Production of 30 March 1981 concerning measures for preventing nitrate/nitrite poisonings from green fodder and the preservatives used in it (nitrate compounds) is viewed as the primary reason for this. The overwhelming majority of injuries from fodder containing nitrate current occur from disregard or ignorance of the nitrate ordinance. It is particularly individual livestock holdings that are affected by this. This experience leads to the conclusion that promulgating the prescribed measures for protecting against nitrate/nitrite poisonings in institutions of higher education, consultations at animal productionssites, the daily papers and in leaflets must be a continuing task in the framework of toxicological prophylaxis.

The determination of hemoglobin content, indicated in the diagnostic explanation of injuries from nitrate/nitrite, can raise some problems at the preanalytical state, since the laboratory examinations of heparinized blood are supposed to be done immediately or, at the latest, within 24 hours when the blood has been stored cold according to the standardized working guidelines (Furcht et.al. 1976). This is a requirement that can only be realized under clinical conditions, and which otherwise demands in general transport of the sample by courier. Investigations into optimizing the conditions for transporting and storing cattle blood, from the perspective of an increase in the time period between taking the sample and hemoglobin determination in the laboratory, showed that an anticoagulant combination of sodium fluoride/ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid-disodium salt (4g + 18.6 g per 100 ml distilled water; 2 ml per 50 ml of blood) inhibits the enzymatically determined decomposition of the hemoglobin. No significant changes in the hemoglobin content were ascertained within 96 hours at room temperature (+25°C) or within 192 hours at refrigerator temperature (+7°C) (Wiesenberg 1984). In the context, for example, of blood samples to be used for prophylactic examinations to check the hemoglobin content, there then exists the possibility of shifting its transport from the road to the railway (Thiemann 1984).

Table 1: Causes of Poisonings of Agricultural Livestock (Cattle, Sheep, Pigs, Fowl) in the Cottbus District From 1974 to 1984

Cause of Injury	No. of Cases
Nitrogen Compounds	
urea/ammonia	29
nitrate/nitrite	63
Pesticides and Crop Protection Agents	
alkyl phosphate	7
chloride hydrocarbons	1
rodent killers ( $Zn_3P_2$ , warfarin)	122
herbicides (chlorate, DNOC)	2
bird repellent agents	2
wood preservatives (boric acid)	1
Heavy Metals	
arsenic	1
lead	3
copper	14
Minerals	
sodium chloride	39
Building Materials	
phenol	3
lime	4
Antifreeze Agents	
ethylene glycol	9
Carbohydrates	
lactic acid	77

#### Urea/Ammonia Noxe

Cattle and sheep poisonings from urea to amide are quite frequently reported. They are chiefly caused by misdoses of fodder, intake of fertilizer urea in the meadow and because of mix-ups. Predisposing factors are failure to hold to a habitual time, lack of energy-rich fodder, insufficient proportion of raw fodder as well as administration with water.

The diagnosis is easily made by determining the ammonia concentration of the contents of the rumen (limit 100 mg per hundred), taking patho-morphological findings into account, in the course of which, according to Szegedi and Juhasz (1971 and Launer (1984), the pH-value of the rumen contents is to be brought in. As a consequence of the pH-value dependent urease effect,

the limit of the pH-value can be set at 6 or 7, lower pH-values of the rumen contents are to be evaluated as not significant to the diagnosis.

Determinations of ammonia and urea in the blood have little promise of success in investigating injuries, since both values are subject to rapid postmortem decomposition in the blood serum due to its high protein content. It has been shown (Wilhelm and Thiemann 1986) that there is a significant correlation between urea content of blood serum and aqueous humor, so that the determination of urea content in aqueous humor obtained postmortem should be accorded a corroborative or, in the case of insufficient facts in a preliminary report, indicative importance.

#### Boric Acid Noxe

Among the relatively infrequently appearing intoxications are injuries due to boron compounds (boric acid, borax), which are contained as the active substance in the wood preservative (Kubasal B). Gross carelessness can occasionally lead to animals gaining access to the preparation or to the 10-percent working solution. Oral intake or larger quantities of the working solution, which is to be observed especially in animals suffering from a lack of water, causes, within a short time, an illness with fatal outcome in sheep. The clinical symptoms consist of groaning, opisthotonus and immobility. In the patho-morphological examination, only degenerative liver and kidney alterations, gastroenteritis and cerebral edema are to be found.

Chemical-toxicological identification of the boron compounds is found in the rumen contents and liver tissue as follows: Fifty grams at a time of test material is alkalized by adding anhydrous sodium carbonate. After drying the mixture overnight at 105°C in a drying oven, each portion is treated with an excess of concentrated sulfuric acid. After being intensively mixed with methanol, it is centrifuged off and the alcoholic extract is ignited. The boric acid-methyl ester that is formed when boron compounds are present burns with a yellow flame that has a characteristic green border.

#### Ethylene Glycol Noxe

Ethylene glycol (ethandiol), a component of antifreeze agents ([Karipol], antifreeze for water-cooled internal-combustion engines) has a toxic effect when taken orally by dogs and cats, and fowl as well. Injuries caused by carelessness and negligence occur time and time again, especially during the winter months, since that is when antifreeze is used. The abovenamed animals, like to drink the sweet-tasting liquid in large quantities. After a short time, dazedness, ataxia, dizziness and heavy salivation or vomiting set in. In the course of the following hours coma occurs, with paddling movements, anuria, uremia, acidosis, and oxalaturia sometimes observed before this. Chemical-toxicological identification of unaltered ethylene glycol can be made both from the stomach contents and from liver, kidney, muscle and heart tissue with thin-layer chromatological detection, whereby the test material is extracted with acetone and then the extract is purified by acetonitrile/n-hexane distribution. A definite diagnosis can be made on the basis of positive identification of an aphysiological bivalent alcohol, together with the patho-morphological findings: liver or

high-grade kidney swellings and the histological state of the kidneys: high-grade nephrosis with pronounced degenerative and, in part, necrotic alterations in the kidney tubes and massive calcium oxalate deposits in the epithelial cells and in the lumina of the kidney tubes.

Since no toxicological knowledge can be assumed of the wide range of users of antifreeze agents with ethylene glycol. An obligatory notice is needed for the retail products to aid in the prophylaxis of this sort of poisoning: Do not bring into contact or store with fodder or food. Prevent consumption by people or animals.

#### Manure Gas Noxe

Manure gas is a mixture of carbon dioxide, ammonia, hydrogen sulphide, and methane. It is formed through the microbial decomposition of organic material containing liquid manure. The fermented gases at first remain dissolved in the liquid manure and can be expelled while stirring or pumping off the liquid manure under unfavorable circumstances (open gates in the pipe between stall and pit, insufficient ventilation equipment, warm, humid weather with little air moving) and accumulate in the stall air in high concentrations. The course of manure gas poisoning in calves depends directly on the concentration of manure gas in the breathing air and time of exposure. The peracute form can be diagnosed on the spot by the practicing veterinarian on the basis of symptoms of suffocation (disquiet, outbreaks of sweating, polypnoea, lack of breath, cyanotic mucous membranes, tearing, runny nose and salivation with foam building at the nose and muzzle, muscular twitching, giddiness, tachycardia, comatose immobility, death by suffocation), the apoplectic course, and the obvious connection with emptying the manure pit. Recognition of the acute poisoning, which does not lead to death by suffocation in its first phase, is problematic, since it must be distinguished from infectious septicemic-thrombotic meningo-encephalomyelitis, cerebrocortical necrosis and listeria encephalitis (Dirksen and Dahme 1984). According to Dirksen and Dahme (1984), the increases in activity of the asparagine transferase and creatine phosphokinase in the blood serum have proven helpful in diagnosing the course of the acute form. Our investigations show that there is no correlative increase in the activity of the abovenamed enzymes in calves that definitely fell ill after inhaling manure gas.

An analysis of the cases cattle, sheep, pig, and fowl poisonings treated in the last decade reveals that thoughtlessness, carelessness and negligence in using chemical materials, and in part ignorance of the toxicological risks as well, will contribute to poisonings, despite further perfecting of the safety guidelines in conjunction with prophylactic measures by the state. On the one hand, violation of the workers' professional duties must be prevented through comprehensive qualification and persistent educational effort of all those directly involved in the process of making increased use of chemistry and, on the other hand, violations of legal regulations must be uncompromisingly punished by the state veterinary authorities. In the case of severe legal offences, it should be determined whether the prerequisites for criminal prosecution are

present. The elimination of conditions promoting animal poisonings requires, in agreement with Burckhardt and Lange (1985), continual education, instruction and inspection as well as punishment under regulatory and labor laws and the laws governing the LPG's.

There are also steadily increasing demands for further education of professional veterinary personnel with consideration of the systematic character of prophylaxis of poisoning. The practice of toxicological field research, as contributing to an increase in production safety, and a constant supply of antidotes, corresponding to practical requirements, in private veterinary pharmacies should also be taken under consideration.

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## MORE EFFECTIVE AGRICULTURAL PRODUCT PRICING MECHANISM PROPOSED

Warsaw PRZEMYSŁ SPOŻYWCZY in Polish No 2, Feb 86 pp 27-28

[Article by Grazyna Majcher-Magdziak: "Official Food Prices and Purchase Prices"]

[Text] Official food prices are a specific type of price closely connected with production costs. Cost accounting forms the basis for these prices. Therefore, it is the relationship between purchase prices, material costs, production costs and retail prices that determines how effective official prices are. These factors can be made permeable depending on the extent to which the proper mechanisms are selected so that at the moment that the purchase prices for agricultural materials and therefore costs change, so do the retail prices. However, these mechanisms should not act in a random manner but but constantly and automatically. Such a procedure gives a better understanding of the idea of official prices. It emphasizes their role in management of the food industry and in creating an "austere" model of food consumption and also limits public controversy over food prices. The creation of an efficient system of information requires a good knowledge of the relationships between costs and prices.

For the central government to set prices that make good economic sense, it is necessary to consider the relationship of agricultural material purchase prices to retail prices and material costs to production costs in the food industry.

In the economic practice of the period before the 1982 "price reform", the principle that food prices should be set in relation to purchase prices was not observed. This led to the fact that the value of material consumed for production of food articles (calculated according to the actual government purchase prices) was very close to or higher than the retail prices. In 1981, the per-unit purchase price for all basic product groups exceeded the retail price (with the exception of grain products whose prices were changed at the end of August), often by as much as 200 percent (Table I). At the beginning of 1982, food prices were raised on a scale never before seen since the end of World War II to reach a level of 263 percent. This measure improved the relationship between both types of prices but was also accompanied by a considerable increase in purchase prices which rose by 157 percent. Therefore, a high percentage of material value out of the retail prices was noted only in dairy and grain products and only in two instances (that of liquid milk and butter) did the cost of materials exceed the price.



Despite the fact that they were not as high as the price increases of the two preceding years, the 1983 price increases were followed by a further increase in the costs of producing food articles. With stabilized official food prices, this worsened the relationship between purchase prices and retail prices. In dairy and grain products, the value of materials in purchase prices exceeded commercial prices or were very close. In the case of rapeseed oil and certain meat products, the percentage of the value of the material in relation to the retail price exceeded the percentage of the material out of the production costs. In 1984, retail food prices were changed but considering the increases in purchase prices too, both price levels remained about the same as the last year. A beneficial change in the difference between purchase and retail prices was noted only in grain products. Estimates of the relationship of purchase prices to retail prices for 1985 (using the new retail prices and assuming a 10-percent increase in the purchase prices for agricultural produce) show that the negative signs observed since 1983 have continued. The value of raw materials used to produce dairy items exceeds their retail prices (with the exception of aged cheese) often by as much as 200 percent. In the case of rapeseed oil, aged cheese and beef, the value of the material in the finished product was nearly 100 percent of the retail price. For wheat flour, this figure is more than 85 percent and dropping. Only in the case of pork and sugar is the ratio of these prices dropping.

Another group of relationships that are very important to the shaping of retail food prices is connected with the production costs in the food industry. Above all, one sees a very high percentage of material costs (the value of material in the purchase cost) in the growth structure of costs. In studies conducted among a select group of businesses in the branches of the food industry subject to official prices (studies conducted by the Institute of Agricultural and Food Economy and G. Majcher-Magdziak and A. Zatorska, "Ocena urzędowych cen żywności" [Evaluation of official food prices], Warsaw, Institute of Agricultural and Food Economy, 1984), this percentage amounted to an average of 85 percent in the meat industry, 85 percent in the dairy industry, 80 percent in the grain and milling industry, 70 percent in the sugar industry and 70 percent in the edible fats industry.

Despite the differences above, the percentages within any given branch soon became a fixed value. These percentages began to change as the result of the introduction of new processing technologies, changes in production assortments and changes in the structure of the prices of production equipment.

Direct comparison of changes in purchase prices and material and total production costs shows the concurrence of rises in both prices regardless of the fact that the changes are often quite varied. The reasons for these differences can be found in the fact that the food industry procures its supplies over the course of the entire year and therefore buys them at different prices. In addition, the "purity" of the connection between the cost of producing food and the purchase prices for agricultural produce has been disrupted by changes in the production assortment (the meat industry) and the fact that several branches of the food industry have made partial use of imported food materials (the grain products and fats industries). In the sugar products and dairy industries that have not been affected by these problems, the changes in purchase prices and material costs are exceptionally similar (tables II and III).

As analysis has shown, the present ratio of purchase prices to retail prices is better than it was before the "reform" in 1982. The need for interaction between both types of prices has been accepted and the first signs of this new approach have now become obvious. The cost of materials has been separated from the price of the products made from them. The directions and growth trends of both prices have also achieved greater similarity. However, it is still a matter of alarm that the prices of vegetable oils, dairy articles and beef are rising faster than the purchases prices for the materials used to produce these products.

Generally, speaking, the situation can be characterized in the following manner: the process of adapting retail prices to purchase prices is no longer a passive one as it was in the last decade but it is still not a cause-and-effect process either. There is no system and there is also no clear-cut concept of the connection between both types of prices. They still function independently of one another and their relationship seems entirely coincidental with some products. The only real difference is that prices are being corrected more quickly and they are more in line with changes in purchase prices. At the same time, with regard to anticipating consumer behavior and buying, the way in which these price corrections are carried out should be much more lucid.

The basis for the creation of a proper adaptive mechanism is quasi-permanent short-term ratios of material costs to production costs of specific groups of food items. These can be used to define the standard ratios of purchase prices to retail prices. In this way, the mechanism for correcting the prices of finished products would act quickly and require no additional measures to be effective. With considerable changes in food production technology and in the costs of production, these ratios would have to be checked every few years.

The given proposal may cause some reservations about the imperfections of cost pricing but it must be remembered that this idea only concerns the official prices and not the relative prices aimed at creating a balance between supply and demand. At the same time, some consideration must be given the problem of which prices are to be based on a cost formula to prevent distortions in the economics of the food industry and the food market.

Table I. The relationship of purchase prices for agricultural materials to the retail prices of selected food articles<sup>1</sup>

Item	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985 <sup>4)</sup>
Pork <sup>2)</sup>	160.6	59.7	63.9	62.2	57.5
Beef <sup>2)</sup>	204.3	74.0	83.2	84.7	91.8
Liquid milk (2 percent fat)	282.8	119.0	129.0	127.7	147.3
Fat cottage cheese	221.7	93.8	101.7	124.7	144.0
Aged cheese	261.2	87.6	91.4	86.4	93.0
Butter	244.1	110.0	118.5	124.4	111.6
Sugar	227.6	57.6	60.9	67.3	48.0
Wheat flour	54.8 <sup>3)</sup>	89.1	125.5	106.7	85.4
Rape oil	138.6	70.3	85.3	82.9	97.1

1) Purchase price per unit of finished product

2) Retail price for an average production structure and purchase price per kilogram of meat and poultry with bone in.

3) After the August price increase

4) Assuming the following purchase price increases: milk -- 115 percent; beef and pork, sugar beets and wheat -- 110 percent; rape -- 105 percent.

Source: my own calculations based on data from the Chief Statistical Bureau.

Table II. Changes in total production costs and material costs in selected firms

Industry	in zloty's x 1000				Preceding year = 100		
	1981	1982	1983	1984	1982	1983	1984
Total production costs per ton of product							
Meat	301	564	581	574	187.4	103.0	98.8
Dairy	130	179	201	213	137.7	112.3	106.0
Sugar	36	49	54	62	136.1	110.2	114.8
Grain milling	16	31	34	36	193.8	109.7	105.9
Fats	21	62	87	94	295.0	140.3	108.0
Material costs per ton of finished product							
Meat	255	486	497	483	190.6	102.3	97.2
Dairy	115	155	171	179	134.8	110.3	104.7
Sugar	28	35	37	41	125.0	105.7	110.8
Grain milling	13	27	27	27	207.7	100.0	100.0
Fats	17	53	53	65	311.8	100.0	122.6

Source: my own calculations from data provided by the studied firms.

Table III. Changes in the government purchase prices for selected agricultural products

Item	Previous year = 100		
	1982	1983	1984
Hogs	153.6	107.1	111.8
Cattle (without calves)	155.6	112.4	116.0
Milk	132.6	111.1	109.2
Sugar beets	126.9	101.5	108.8
Wheat	152.9	140.8	100.3
Rye	156.3	123.3	99.4
Rape	169.2	121.2	97.0

Source: materials from the Chief Statistical Bureau

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## FULFILLMENT OF EXPORT OBLIGATIONS 1985 VIEWED

Prague SVET HOSPODARSTVI in Czech 1 Jul 86 p 2

[Article, author not given: "The CSSR and CEMA: Fulfillment of Export Obligations Last Year"]

[Text] In 1985 our overall volume of trade with socialist countries increased by 6.7 points over 1984. Both exports and imports increased over 1984 levels by this percentage. The general engineering sectors participated in this performance by exceeding their plan targets for 1985. In particular the heavy engineering branch of the Federal Ministry of Metallurgy and Heavy Engineering increased its exports by 3.6 percent. The Federal Ministry of General Engineering increased its exports by 1.2 percent and the Federal Ministry of the Electrotechnical Industry increased its exports by 2.1 percent.

Multilateral production specialization and cooperation in machinery and equipment increased significantly in 1985 with CEMA member countries. Czechoslovak export obligations of 1.780 billion rubles represented an increase of 320 million rubles, or 22.2 percent, over 1984. The actual export volume of 1.906 billion rubles exceeded the plan target by 126.4 million rubles, or 7.1 percent. The lion's share of this multilateral production specialization and cooperation in machinery and equipment is accounted for by long-term international agreements drafted and signed under the CEMA Commission for Cooperation in Engineering (formerly the Standing CEMA Commission for Engineering), including the Intertextilmas International economic organization. Parties to these agreements are usually enterprises or economic production units from sectors of the Federal Ministry of General Engineering and the Federal Ministry of Metallurgy and Heavy Engineering. The value of export obligations in 1985 was 1.64 billion rubles. All these obligations were fulfilled 100 percent.

Other participants in multilateral production specialization and cooperation in machinery and equipment in the CSSR are economic production units and firms from sectors of the Federal Ministry of the Electrotechnical Industry, and especially those that are members of the Standing CEMA Commission for Radio Technology and Electronics, the international economic organizations Interelektro, Interatominstrument, and the Intergovernmental Commission for Cooperation in Computer Technology. The Federal Ministry of General Engineering also plays a

significant role through the membership of its production organizations in OSPVL (Organization for Cooperation in the Anti-Friction Bearing Industry). A total of 141.5 million rubles in export obligations was undertaken in this area in 1985, while 267.8 million rubles' worth of machinery and equipment was actually delivered.

As in 1984, the trend in 1985 continued towards more rapid growth of overall exports of machinery and equipment to CEMA member countries than of exports related to multilateral production specialization and cooperation. This is indicated by comparing the volume of exports of speciality machinery and equipment and of multilateral cooperation as a percentage of total exports of machinery and equipment to CEMA countries.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Value of fulfilled specialization obligations</u>	<u>Specialization as a percentage of total exports of machines and equipment</u>
1983	1.573 billion rubles	30.45 percent
1984	1.814 billion rubles	27.33 percent
1985	1.906 billion rubles	27.00 percent

This compilation shows, however, that shipments in 1985 were 92 million rubles higher than in 1984, while specialization as a percentage of total exports dropped by 0.33 percent. This is not as great a difference as in 1984.

An overview of the obligations and how well they were met in terms of individual CEMA member countries follows (figures are in thousands of convertible rubles FCO):

<u>Country</u>	<u>Obligations</u>	<u>Fulfillment</u>	<u>Percentage share of:</u>	
			<u>obligations</u>	<u>fulfillment</u>
Total for CEMA comprised of:	1,780,081	1,906,461	100	100
USSR	1,192,903	1,300,738	67.01	68.24
GDR	201,401	243,676	11.31	12.78
Poland	172,745	181,930	9.70	9.54
Hungary	70,421	51,494	3.96	2.70
Bulgaria	71,459	72,137	4.01	3.78
Romania	58,409	49,622	3.28	2.60
Cuba	12,743	6,866	0.73	0.36

As in previous years, the highest percentage of total obligations were made with the Soviet Union. (In 1984 the percentage was 68.28 percent.) There was

no change with regard to the GDR (12.75 percent in 1984). The percentage of obligations undertaken with Poland increased by 1.54 percent and those with Bulgaria by 0.38 percent over 1984. The percentage of total obligations undertaken with the last three countries, i.e., Hungary, Romania and Cuba, declined between 1984 and 1985. Czechoslovakia did not fulfill its export obligations to these countries, as is clearly reflected in the final trade balances between these countries in 1985.

The Soviet Union remained the largest customer for specialized Czechoslovak engineering products. Existing obligations were overfulfilled by more than 100 million rubles, and actual shipments increased by more than 60 million rubles over 1984. This was, however, one of the smallest annual increases in recent years. In 1984 shipments increased by 250 million rubles over 1983. In 1983 the increase was 175 million rubles over 1982.

Even though export obligations were exceeded in 1985, we cannot be completely satisfied with the product mix of the shipments. There were, in fact, a number of shortfalls in trucks, agricultural equipment and tractors, plastics working equipment, locomotives, mining equipment, automobile engines, automated loading and unloading equipment, crude oil processing equipment, vehicles for cleaning cities, cement factory equipment, woodworking equipment, automatic bearing making equipment, equipment for public eating places and machines for the food industry, isothermic vehicles, etc. Even though these shortfalls are often caused by objective factors, such as adjusted volumes in annual requisitions, plan changes, etc., it will be necessary in the future to pay greater attention to meeting these obligations, especially when the shortfall is due to insufficient production capacities in the CSSR.

Overall performance in multilateral production specialization and cooperation in machinery and equipment for CSSR exports for 1985 may be evaluated positively. It is now important to maintain this momentum into 1986, mainly by the timely extension of agreements and the recruitment of suppliers to meet the obligations for the upcoming 5-year period.

9276/12851

CSO: 2400/372

## CSSR-GDR PRODUCTION OF INDUSTRIAL FIXTURES DISCUSSED

Prague SVET HOSPODARSTVI in Czech 1 Jul 86 p 2

[Article by Bohumil Lein, Intersigma Enterprise: "The CSSR and GDR: Production of Industrial Fixtures"]

[Text] Industrial fixtures are one of the sectors in which specialized and cooperative production between the CSSR and the GDR has yielded some results. Trade in specialized fixtures production fluctuated during the Seventh 5-Year Plan in the vicinity of 20-22 million rubles annually. Between 1986 and 1990 this is projected to increase to 21-23 million rubles annually.

The first discussions about specialization took place in 1959 between the association of national enterprises Czechoslovak Fixture Works in Prague and the firm Armaturen und Hydraulik in Halle. This led to a basic draft program between the two partners and preparatory work. In 1961 both partners began deliveries according to a new organization of production that represented total specialization, i.e., the termination of production in one country and coverage of the discontinued items through deliveries from the other country. This involved several fixtures for the power generation industry.

In 1966-1970 both partners signed a contract on production specialization, mutual deliveries and cooperation in R&D. The CSSR representative was the reorganized economic production unit Stigma and for the GDR the Magdeburg Karl Marx Fixture Works. This expanded relationship was based on successful, broadly based cooperation that had become a model for developing ties with other CEMA countries in the field of industrial fixtures. This form of cooperation was suitable for production enterprises as well as foreign trade organizations and did not require any important changes in subsequent five-year plans. Recently a contract was signed for 1986-1990 that further increased the volume of trade.

In evaluating more than 25 years of cooperation between the CSSR and the GDR in the area of industrial fixtures, one must be aware that both countries possessed the proper conditions for addressing this area successfully. Both our country and the GDR had a more than 100-year tradition of producing industrial fixtures. Moreover, both countries had the technical capacity to enable them to resolve effectively differing design concepts in areas where, for instance, it was necessary to terminate production in certain enterprises where a certain item was one of the firm's basic products for decades.



The GDR has succeeded in specializing, for instance, in the extensive area of steam separators, medium and low pressure regulation and reduction valves, and level indicators for boiler installations. The CSSR has specialized in the production of safety valves for pressure vessels, spherical valves for natural gas and crude oil pipelines, including long distance pipelines, water gauges for power generation equipment, metallurgical fixtures, etc.

In addition to the areas of specialization mutual deliveries of other products are continuing. These include products that are temporarily in short supply, specialty fixtures, or special order items, etc.

Currently it is being determined whether it is feasible to use Czechoslovak closure flaps in the GDR. A joint approach is also being discussed regarding deliveries of standard fixtures that can be used in both countries.

We intend to extend the current very positive level of cooperation between the Sigma concern and the Magdeburg Karl Marx Fixture Works in the field of fixtures through the year 2000 in line with the resolution of the 41st plenum of the CEMA. This will occur especially in the bilateral introduction of products that will make it possible to decrease imports from nonsocialist countries.

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CSO: 2400/372

## MACHINERY REBUILDING, MODERNIZING GOALS SKETCHED

East Berlin PRESSE-INFORMATIONEN in German No 82, 17 Jul 86 p 4

[Article by Peter Kuntz of the State Planning Commission: "Utilizing All Possibilities for Modernizing Existing Capital Equipment"]

[Text] GDR industry today has at its disposal a stock of capital equipment valued at approximately M530 billion. To continue on the course of comprehensive intensification means to put to maximum use this powerful potential and to increase its productivity. It is important to quickly transfer to production the knowledge of science and technology and, when employing improved technologies, to meaningfully combine new and highly productive equipment with the modernization of existing technical facilities. The five-year-plan directive of the XIth Party Congress of the SED specifies that increasingly capacities of the maintenance system be utilized for modernization of entire production segments in combination with the use of modern equipment.

However, in many instances this possibility of updating existing capital equipment by means of overall repairs to a level required today is not being fully exploited. By no means, a general overhaul is merely intended to restore the original useful value; but rather the idea is, for example in the case of machine tools, to achieve, with the installation of microelectronic controls, more powerful drive motors and assemblies, a genuine increase in productivity with at the same time distinctly lower expenditure than would be required for new acquisitions. For overall repairs on machine tools the following criteria of effectiveness are specified; for example, expense may not exceed 30 to 40 percent of the price of a comparable new acquisition, and its productive capacity after completed repair must be about 30 percent higher than before. Useful life should be extended by 4 to 6 years. At the same time, material and energy savings of 30 percent as compared to the use of a new machine are to be achieved.

At the XIth SED Party Congress the task was specified to increase the fraction of overhauls on maintenance equipment on an industry average from the present 7 percent to at least 15 percent by 1990. A number of combines reached a higher fraction last year already, namely the VEB Kombinat Automatisierungslagenbau (18.1 percent), and the VEB Kombinat Kabelwerk Oberspree "Wilhelm Pieck" (15.6 percent).

Examples from all branches of industry give evidence that general repairs, relative to the necessary expenditure, are considerably more effective than new acquisitions. For example, in VEB Kombinat Kabelwerk Oberspree "Wilhelm Pieck" the increase of goods produced amounted to--measured against general overhauls performed--M1,600 per M1,000; in addition, it was possible to gain 30 workers for other assignments. In VEB Bandstahlkombinat "Hermann Matern", the increase was in the range of M1,500. However, a comparison also demonstrates the great differential between the combines of individual industrial branches.

The complicated, yet highly effective general overhauls place high demands on workers with respect to dedication and creativity. It is, after all, a matter of exceeding, with shortest possible downtimes for plant and equipment, the originally achieved technical and economical parameters while at the same time improving working conditions. The wealth of production experience of the skilled workers directly involved with the machines and equipment, their suggestions and comments are highly beneficial.

On this basis, the employees of VEB Sachsenwerk Dresden updated a vertical boring and turning mill. The result: an increase in production by M200,000 per year and an extension of the life of the machine by many years. In the VEB Landmaschinenbau "Rotes Banner", a turret lathe was modernized and a charring manipulator added at the same time. Annual production increased by M150,000 and one worker was freed for other assignments.

In the case of such general overhauls, it is frequently necessary to solve difficult problems both technical and organizational. Here it is important that maintenance personnel and the internal efficiency equipment building division of the plants work closely together, since in the majority of cases such measures are executed by the users of the capital equipment themselves.

At the same time, the responsibility of capital equipment manufacturers increases. It is in everyone's interest if they become better equipped to allow for the fact that plants, equipment and machines supplied by them have to be continually updated. This includes the capacity to offer to a greater degree spare parts or assemblies as well as modernization solutions.

13011/9312  
CSO: 2300/510

## LACK OF SERVICES, SOCIAL INFRASTRUCTURE DISCOURAGE FARM LABOR

East Berlin SOZIALISTISCHE ARBEITSWISSENSCHAFT in German Vol 30 No 2, 1986  
(signed to press 15 Jan 86) pp 118-124

[Article by Sonja Mueller, PhD, scientific assistant with the Academy of Social Sciences, CC SED, Institute for Marxist-Leninist Sociology. Original title: "Development of Agricultural Labor Potential According to Plan."]

[Text] The qualitative and quantitative development of labor potential is today--beside the effective utilization of the available labor potential--one of the most essential factors in increasing productivity in agriculture. In the 60's and 70's, socialist rationalization and the utilization of modern technology helped in the noticeable increase of production and made it possible to decrease the size of the work force. (Footnote 1)

The necessary increase of production through comprehensive, intensive, expanded reproduction necessitates greater efforts in the reproduction of labor potential in agriculture at the present time. Accordingly, the 10th SED Party Congress gave directions not to permit further decreases in the size of the labor force in order to guarantee stable and effective agricultural production. (Footnote 2)

## Demographically, Socially Stable Villages--a Requirement for Stabilizing Agricultural Labor Potential

The development of agriculture and its labor potential is always closely related to the development of the villages (Footnote 3), and this fact is determined, objectively speaking, by the role of the soil as primary production means as well as by the great importance of the close proximity of production to the village. The proximity of production and village is not only an essential characteristic of agricultural work conditions but was and remains, at the same time, an important effectiveness factor. Only a few focal points should here be mentioned: advantages of territorial forms of production organization, producers' concrete knowledge of soil conditions and other local production conditions; public control of work quality, of quality of field cultivation, etc.; minimization of transport, etc. The comprehensive transition to intensive, expanded reproduction, especially the necessity of economical operations, makes it necessary to utilize and develop this factor in ever improved form. (Footnote 4)

Villages are the primary sites of agricultural production, and the working and living places of people employed in agriculture. Even today when--even in areas with primarily agricultural structures--people employed in agriculture constitute only about half of the working people living in the respective villages (Footnote 5), more than 853,000 collective farmers and farm workers are living with their families in the villages. (Footnote 6)

This means that the further implementation of comprehensive intensification in agricultural labor potential, requires also the further development of villages, of their demographic and social structure and way of life. "The positive results of plan fulfillment illustrate the close relationship between agricultural growth and all-around stabilization of the LPG, and the intensification of cooperation and social development in our villages. The complex political guidance of this development process will be, also in the future, the task of all bezirk and county leaders of the party. (Footnote 7)

For guaranteeing and increasing agricultural production it is necessary to develop the size of village populations to the degree that reproduction of agricultural labor potential in specific territories is assured in the best possible way. Seen from factual perspective, the village population is an important demographic source for stabilization and reproduction of agricultural labor potential for at least two reasons.

First, young people with village and farm backgrounds are from early age used to rural working and living conditions, to nature, soil and animals. (Footnote 8) All of these factors are conditions supporting progressive traditions as well as the willingness to live in villages for the class of collective farmers and for the agricultural sector of the working class. Secondly, the labor reserves available in the village population, comprised of the partially or temporarily not utilized labor potential (e.g., additional labor forces during seasonally determined peak seasons, can thus also be made available.

Furthermore, it should be pointed out that the reproduction of the village population is a precondition for meeting the complex needs of the village population employed in agriculture, as well as those of the other people living there. For this purpose those demographic and social groups must be reproduced that, although not directly employed in agriculture, perform important services in the villages (employees in the sectors of the social infrastructure).

A stable development and reproduction of the village population is also a necessary precondition for the effective utilization of the gradually grown network on rural housing developments, of their quality of life and infrastructure. Because the effectiveness of the institutions of the social infrastructure is codetermined by the size of the village population, the continuation of these institutions depends also upon the stable reproduction of the village population. Insufficient reproduction could eventually lead to gradual neglect or even cessation of a particular quality of life and other infrastructure institutions in individual localities, and that, in turn, would have negative effects on the social life of the villages involved,

especially for young people. At the same time, it would also happen that the infrastructure in certain villages would lose its function, whereas, particularly in the cities, demands on housing construction and infrastructure services would see additional increases (especially also because of unplanned population movements from villages to cities).

Finally, stability, wealth and variety of the demographic and social structure are essential conditions for the continuity, wealth and variety of social relations in the village, of social communication and of the development of the political and spiritual-cultural life, etc. These, in turn, are important preconditions for social wellbeing, village ties and the desire to stay in one place.

Up to now, the development of the demographic and social structure of the village population has been accompanied by continuous migration from village to city. In quantitative terms, this process results in a numerical decrease of the rural population: from 1960 to 1983 to 81.1 percent, whereby its proportionate share in the GDR population was reduced from 28.0 percent to 23.4 percent. (Footnote 9) A typical feature of this development was that, as a rule, the smaller village suffered the greater migration losses, and that again more strongly in areas with agricultural rather than primarily industrial structures.

This migration from villages to cities was without doubt a necessary and progressive process. The development of effective industries in the GDR and the construction of industrial centers, also in the country, were important preconditions for overcoming the country's shortcomings, and for developing the working class as the leading force of our society in city and country, and also for developing political-administrative centers in cities and country. Besides, the demographic structure of the village population and the planned reduction of work forces in agriculture through increasing utilization of the scientific-technical progress made migration tendencies of this kind possible at the time.

A certain redistribution of the population will continue to be a requirement and a result of the development of production forces and social work distribution. But a continuation of the migration of the village population would have negative effects on agricultural production, on the reproduction of the agricultural labor potential, on the utilization of the available material and spiritual assets in the villages, and finally on the implementation of comprehensive, intensive, expanded reproduction. Already at the present time, some of the GDR counties, especially in agriculturally structured areas, are unable, because of the present demographic situation in the villages, to train future agricultural workers by drawing on the village population itself.

Therefore the planned development of the demographic and social structure of the villages, and also the development of agriculture and its work potential, are closely related to the task of directing migration processes in such a way that in the end a quantitative and qualitative balance will be attained, as far as possible, in the population development in city and country. The beginning of this kind of development is attested, e.g., by the fact that from

1981 to 1982 there was a strongly reduced domestic across-county borders migration which reached its lowest level ever up to that date. (Footnote 10)

#### Consistent Direction of Village Population Migration

Finding promising directional and planning mechanisms for decreasing the migration of the village population is a complex task. The first and necessary condition for solving this problem is to create general awareness that more than ever before it is now necessary to stabilize in principle the population of each village. This awareness depends on the recognition that under our conditions each village has a perspective, and also on the social appreciation of the village concept and of the specific advantages of life in the country. (Footnote 11) Beside the development and stabilization of awareness of this kind, the positive and negative factors must be analyzed for each area in general, and the concrete and differentiated conditions and requirements for each individual village specifically.

Social experiments and the results of sociological research are already offering the following conclusions: the first premise is that migration can be curbed primarily through further development of the villages themselves. The majority of people who have left the villages or intend to do so develop this tendency not because they want to live in the city at any cost. (Between 70 and 90 percent of those questioned during different research phases expressed a wish to remain in the country). An essential cause of the migration is the difference in the level of working and living conditions, and of the social life in certain villages themselves that does not meet the expectations of the entire village community. This may lead to the fact that the desire to remain does not correspond with the actual fact of remaining. This makes clear two points:

First, the development of activities sponsored by the village population and local community leaders with the purpose of developing villages and their social life is of great importance in attempting to curb migration.

Secondly, those factors that in the villages promote or cause migration must be gradually removed, and those that promote strong ties of the villagers with their villages must be supported in a planned way. (Footnote 12) Both kinds of factors have very different effects, depending on specific locales and different social and demographic groupings.

Within the group of factors that cause or promote migration the factors pertaining to the work spheres of the village population and to the specific subject matter of the work sciences hold a decisive position. Aversion to agricultural work is caused in some workers by the exertions of physical labor that still exist in some places, or by unpleasant hygienic working conditions in agriculture, and also by the specific conditions of agricultural production processes (dependency on weather conditions, working time regulations, seasonal character of work). These factors can cause fluctuations, or the early decision to look for nonagricultural employment. These are important preconditions for migration from the villages. Curbing migrations will thus be possible only if appropriate working conditions and production



potentials of agricultural enterprises are further improved--especially also through the elimination of unjustified differentiations between individual enterprises. In addition, the attractiveness of agricultural work must be further improved and, especially among young villagers, an appropriate attitude toward the permanent specifics of the agricultural production process must be fostered.

For a part of the village population the desire to migrate can also arise from the wish to practice a profession for which there are no appropriate jobs in the village. Even if it can be assumed that in the future far more young villagers than before will learn and work in agricultural jobs, the fact must still be taken into account that not all of the young people living in the country will choose jobs in agriculture. Therefore, increased attention must be paid to work shuttle migration that includes the willingness to continue to live in the village and is, in a way, a countermeasure to migration. In addition, these commuters, because of their on the average high level of qualification and their relatively low average age as well as their relatively high proportion of being part of the working class, constitute an important group in the village population for the development of a rich social life.

The planned retention and creation of appropriate jobs in the villages can also prevent non-agriculturally oriented job aspirations from resulting in migration tendencies. This can be achieved by further developing the infrastructure of the villages; by raising their production level through the creation of trade jobs such as housing construction and restoration; by the expansion and planned creation of production facilities for the processing and preparation of fruit, vegetables, potatoes; by jobs in distilleries, butcheries and bakeries--in conjunction with the responsibilities of the LPG, GPG [horticultural producer cooperative], VEG [state farm] and their collectives.

Important among the factors encouraging migration are those that lie outside the specific sphere of work. These factors are strongly tied to material conditions that are connected with the social infrastructure. Among them are especially shopping facilities, and the possibility to have access to services, social activities, communication, spiritual-cultural and athletic events, care of children and health services for the village population. The question is not whether all of these are available in each village, but they must be available at a cost that is socially and individually justifiable. The higher expectations in these fields by people living in agriculturally structured areas reflect the still existing differences in living conditions between them and the people living in industrially structured areas.

It is a matter of proven experience that from the long-range point of view the opening up of villages by connecting them with transportation facilities has "paid off." When these developments undergo further planned improvements, attention should be paid to utilizing conditions that become effective without substantial investments. Such conditions include the planned coordination of public and industrial transportation facilities for people in transport collectives, and also the even better utilization of the industrial transportation network (e.g., the roads used by the agricultural crop production enterprises), and others.



Migration is also encouraged when the social life in the village, especially on the spiritual-cultural and sport levels, does not adequately correspond to the needs of all groups of village residents. In such cases the younger and better qualified villagers especially tend to leave their villages. Therefore the further development of social life in the villages is of great importance. Here, the villagers', especially the young people's, own initiative can be promoted and productively utilized in many ways.

This is true for the social life in the entire community, but especially also in regard to further improvements in every small village. Community councils and local representatives have a growing responsibility in this respect. The communities are and remain the basic political unit of all citizens in regard to guaranteeing their civil rights and duties, and to deciding upon and finding solutions for the basic questions on to the social development of their own territories within the framework of central, national direction and planning. Of importance here is the equal observation and representation of the interests of each one of the villages belonging to a community (including of course all residences, etc.) in the representative body of the community, and that means the stable and constant development of civic activities, of the political and the total social life in every village. Of proven effectiveness have been, for example, e.g., the activities of honorary acting mayors in the villages, the representation of each individual village in the community council, groups of delegates directing activities in their villages, and other activities of this kind.

An important basis for the social-structural and demographic stability of a village is the feeling of belonging of its inhabitants. This feeling is promoted especially by such factors as relatively good village living conditions and ownership of a home or house. Social orientation toward enforced construction of own homes in the villages is therefore an important factor in curbing the migration of villagers and in promoting the feeling of belonging to the village. This orientation, however, will not result automatically in the effects just mentioned. Housing conditions show their effect as binding factor always within a larger social context of living conditions. For example, young people who have not yet established permanent residences by founding families, often do not have the desire to tie themselves to work or village by building their own home. As a matter of fact, the decision to build a home already presupposes ties with a particular village, and materializes and strengthens it to a considerable degree. It is therefore necessary to develop housing conditions appealing to young people (e.g., homes for unmarried people, modernization of older houses or construction of small apartments) as a transitional stage to the construction of own homes.

Research has also shown that the total complex of specifics of village life is effective in producing a feeling of belonging to a village: close ties to nature, close relations to neighbors and relatives, having one's own garden, being responsible for individual homemaking, and other factors of this kind. These specifics permit the following conclusions: even with consideration for all local differentiations in conditions and problems to be solved, the essential problem is to develop unified, gradual decreases of the differences

between city and country by making living conditions in the country resemble more closely those in the city and by retaining the rural character and specific conditions of country life. Here, the important thing is always the activity of the village community itself in solving the problems resulting from the essential tasks.

Of special importance is the cooperation of all social agencies in the villages under the leadership of the local political representatives. The reproduction of labor potential in agriculture depends not only on the level of working conditions but just as much on the living conditions and the social and demographic structure in the villages--and vice versa. Agricultural enterprises as well as local political representatives have therefore joint objective interests in satisfying the complex needs of the labor force and residents in the country, and also in developing a rich social life in the village.

Good results are obtained wherever cooperative efforts influence living conditions in the villages and where contributions are made toward overcoming the differentiations between villages. But the multi-layered task of developing villages cannot be left to agricultural enterprises alone. "The development of our agriculture is a challenge to the entire society, and the same is true in principle of the development of the villages." (Footnote 13) Beside the social organizations in the village, such as the VdGB [Peasant Mutual Aid Association], non-agricultural enterprises that are either established in the village or have their workers living in the village also bear responsibility for developing living conditions in the village. The work with territorial development concepts and village development concepts that are developed and realized in their complexities has proven successful in joint village development. These documents are important pieces of information for local political representatives and for the realization of their growing responsibility for the development of each village in their community. (Footnote 14)

#### FOOTNOTES

1. See the SED CC report by E. Honecker to the 10th Party Congress, Dietz Verlag, Berlin, 1981, p 41.
2. See *ibid.*, p 74.
3. Most of the rural communities (according to statistics up to 2000 inhabitants) are made up of several villages so that the rural population of the GDR is living in from 13,000 to 15,000 villages, including additional residences. The problems discussed here deal not only with the stabilization of the entire rural population but in principle also with that of each individual village.
4. See K. Krambach: "Socialist Lifestyle in the Village," *EINHEIT*, Vol 6, p 309.
5. A sociological study made in 1983 in 27 rural communities of Neubrandenburg Bezirk and in 4 rural communities in Leipzig Bezirk showed that

in the 27 northern communities the ratio of people employed in agriculture was 42 percent, with the smaller communities having as a rule the higher ratio with a spread between 70 and 20 percent. In the 4 southern communities the average ratio of people employed in agriculture was 22 percent with a minimal difference between individual communities.

6. 1984 GDR Statistical Yearbook, Berlin 1984, p 1980.
7. 8th meeting of the SED CC, 24 May 1984. Report of the SED CC Politburo, K Hager reporter. Dietz Verlag Berlin 1984, p 36.
8. See the law on agricultural production collectives--LPG Law GBI I 1982 No 25, p 443.
9. Computed according to 1984 GDR Statistical Yearbook, p 8.
10. Computed according to 1984 GDR Statistical Yearbook, p 354.
11. See the report by Agriculture, Forestry and Food Production Minister H. Kuhrig in: "12 Farmers' Congress of the GDR on 13 and 14 May 1982 in Berlin," edited protocol, Berlin 1982, p 127.
12. The term "ties to the village" is here understood in subjective terms. The term "residential relations" expresses especially the emotional side of one's relation to a place of residence whereas "residential ties" expresses more strongly the objective circumstances of being tied to a place of residence (e.g., through family responsibilities or ownership of home or real estate). A Kahl: "On the Relationship between Residential Contentment and Residential Relations to New Places of Residence in the GDR," in SCIENTIFIC MAGAZINE OF HUMBOLDT UNIVERSITY BERLIN, Social Science and Language Series, 1979, Vol 4, p 530.
13. W. Felfe: "40 Years of Democratic Land Reform--40 Years of Successful SED Agricultural and Alliance Policy." Address at the Central Scientific Conference on the occasion of the 40th anniversary of the democratic land reform on 26 August 1985 in Berlin DVB 1985, p 47.
14. See the law on local political representation in the GDR of 4 July 1985, GBI I, No. 18, 1985.

8889/9435  
CSO: 2300/488

## BRIEFS

INDUSTRIAL EMISSIONS DESULPHURIZATION--The Leipzig Heating Plant 'Max Reimann' will be equipped with a new facility for the desulphurization of smoke gas. The assembly will be completed in November. By the so-called limestone-additive method a large part of the sulphur emissions is absorbed by calcium oxide. That procedure was developed at the Leipzig Energetics Institute, and tested technically on a large scale at the Vockerode' Elbe Powerplant. In the near future, heating plants in Karl-Marx-Stadt, Plauen, and Breitungungen will be re-equipped with the new desulphurization technology. The Dessau Cement Installation Building Enterprise is the subcontractor. [Text] [East Berlin Domestic Service in German 1200 GMT 10 Aug 86 DW]

CAD/CAM FOR MINING INDUSTRY--This year the number of CAD/CAM [computer-aided design/computer-aided manufacture] work stations will double to more than 1,000 in the GDR's ore mining, metallurgy and potash industries. Minister Kurt Singhuber commented on the current situation of the utilization of modern key technologies in a press interview published today. He stressed that refinement equipment has priority. He added that computer-aided controls are particularly essential in the rapid manufacturing processes of the steel and rolling mills, as well as in the smelting works and enterprises for semifinished products of the non-ferrous metallurgy sector. Minister Singhuber said that the utilization of microelectronics is mainly aimed at increasing labor productivity, at reducing the expense of time and material, and at guaranteeing the quality. Further robots, he added, facilitate the jobs of more than 3,000 workers. [Text] [East Berlin Voice of GDR Domestic Service in German 0500 GMT 12 Aug 86 DW]

TOOL PLANT IN CUBA--The GDR is currently building a manufacturing plant for shop tools in Guantanamo in Cuba. The plant is supplied by Hawema Veb, Karl-Marx-Stadt an enterprise belonging to the "Fritz Heckert" machine-tool combine. [Summary] [East Berlin Domestic Service in German 1427 GMT 13 Aug 86 DW]

HEAT-INSULATING GLASS PRODUCTION--In Torgau, the first large-scale technical facility is now manufacturing heat-insulating glass using a very modern procedure. The sheet glass combine's researchers have thus put into practice in industry a principle that has been known for years. In doing so, they have resolved a problem dealt with by scientists and engineers all over the world. By means of a robot, the glass is coated with a metal-salt solution, which is transparent, heat-reflecting, and conducts electricity. For the

time being, energy-efficient glass for kitchen stoves is being manufactured. It is planned to manufacture industrial glass for hothouses and for heatable windshields for rail vehicles. [Text] [East Berlin Voice of GDR Domestic Service in German 0900 GMT 15 Aug 86 DW]

MERSEBURG VEB ALUMINUM FOIL--Merseburg VEB Aluminum Foil, an enterprise belonging to the Mansfeld combine, is currently producing 20,500 square meters of aluminum foil from 1 ton of aluminum, which is 3,500 square meters more than 10 years ago. The foil has been reduced in thickness. By the end of July 86, the Merseburg enterprise had a lead in net production of 2.8 days, and an additional production of consumer goods of 2.5 days. The "science and technology" plan will be achieved in 11 months this year. [Summary] [East Berlin Television Service in German 1730 GMT 17 Aug 86 DW]

WOLFFEN PLANT OPENING--A new processing plant for 35-mm film began operation in Wolffen today. The equipment, which is controlled automatically and is light proof, will eliminate a great number of dark workplaces and monotonous manual labor. Thus, working conditions for 250 employees will improve considerably. At the same time a substantial increase in productivity is brought about by the procedure. All sequences of operation are controlled by microcomputer. More than 200 workers have qualified in training courses for the new tasks. [Text] [East Berlin Voice of GDR Domestic Service in German 1500 GMT 18 Aug 86 DW]

/9716

CSO: 2300/542

## OFFICIAL FEARS RETREAT ON MANAGEMENT REFORMS

Budapest MAGYAR HIRLAP in Hungarian 21 May 86 p 3

[Interview by Karoly Ban with Dr Gyula Palmai, main department head at the Ministry of Justice: "The Perils of Returning to the Old Ways"]

[Text] Is it permissible for the enterprise council to award the title of chief director to the director of the firm? Are the workers permitted to elect the firm's deputy director to preside over their public meeting? And what can the founding organ do if its members do not like the decisions? And anyway: What do we mean by supervising legality in state enterprises which operate autonomously? How does this type of supervision differ from the earlier practiced--and, to a certain extent, still existing--supervision of firms?

A little more than halfway through accomplishing the transfer to new forms of enterprise leadership, we are discussing these issues with Dr Gyula Palmai, main department head at the Ministry of Justice.

[Question] Recently the Minister of Justice issued guiding principles concerning certain questions connected with supervising the legality of practices at enterprises managed by enterprise councils, workers' forums, or workers' delegates. What made this necessary? Was the chaos perhaps so great?

[Answer] Naturally, there is, and continues to be, confusion in interpreting the regulations. Thus, in February the government decided to entrust the Minister of Justice with the coordination of legal policies involved in the supervision of legality. Even at the time the new laws concerning enterprises came into effect, the demand became evident: in the formation of legal policies the activities of ministries exercising supervision and those of other national organizations must be coordinated. The recently publicized guiding principles also serve this purpose. Through continuous consultation we would like to assure that in content, methods, and execution the various supervisory founding organs identically interpret the most basic matters of legality; so that the same breach of legality is not followed by a slap on the wrist in one area and major retribution in another. .pa

[Question] I believe that we will need a long time before the supervision of legal practices will operate smoothly; after all, it is not easy to alter the

methods which have been established for decades. What, after all, do we mean by supervision of legality? Are we past the point where we have to clarify the term?

[Answer] Indeed, the changes can be called radical; in the case of an autonomous firm the control of management practices has been replaced by organizational and operational control, which can never mean the control of economic feasibility. The content of supervision over legality precludes the possibility of interfering with the firm's affairs, while making it possible to control the extent to which the economic unit obeys the regulations, the organizational and operational rules that have taken on the force of internal laws, as well as other internal guidelines.

[Question] Expressed in practical terms: The Ministry cannot interfere if an enterprise makes a faulty decision, but it can interfere if the decision was made in a manner that is contrary to regulations. . . .

[Answer] Exactly. Control is exercised to this extent: Does the firm obey the rules created by itself? But I can cite another example in order to clarify the issue. At the time when we were switching to the new forms of enterprise management, one issue was debated: Do members of the enterprise council have the right to abstain during a vote? Many people said that the members must answer with "Yes" or "No." However, no voting procedure may deprive the citizens of their right to abstain, so such a limitation was unacceptable. Consequently, if an enterprise council precludes the possibility of abstention in its operational by-laws, then such by-laws are illegal, and the supervisory organs have the right to reverse decisions made under their influence.

[Question] What debatable issues have come up during the supervision of legality until now?

[Answer] For example: Is it permissible for the deputy director of the firm to become the president of the enterprise council? There are no legal or theoretical grounds for preventing this from happening, but practical considerations spoke against such an eventuality. You see, if the director were to become ill or go on vacation, his deputy carries on in his place, in other words he will become the director of the firm, and as such he may not be the president of the enterprise council. In such an instance, the two positions become incompatible with each other. Another example that has also frequently been the subject of debate: Is it permissible for the enterprise council to award the title of director general to the director of the firm? Is this a breach of legality or not? The regulations say that the practice is permissible, but not because of the director's personal traits, not because he is "such a nice, able" person. The title can be awarded if the size and activities of the firm justify this; you see, the title of director general is not tied to the person, but to the activity.

[Question] Several of our jurists expressed worries about a certain "return to the old ways," that is, the danger that the ministries--since they no longer have the right to directly interfere with management practices--will continue to "suggest" courses of action to the enterprises.



[Answer] The presence of such a danger, though not broadly prevalent, is indicated by certain signs, although I must emphasize that the practice is not initiated "from above." There are times when an enterprise throws the ball back to the former supervisory organ, saying "we prefer to be told by the Ministry what is good for them, and what is good for us." The only thing more dangerous than this is when ministries themselves wish to suggest what is good for them. This is what we refer to as "returning to the old ways," and we have to fight these tendencies with our resources, because they would torpedo the reforms.

[Question] One thing was clarified early during the reform of the economic supervisory system: Strategic decisions are the responsibility of the employer, that is the enterprise council, while tactical decisions remain the responsibility of the director, who is still the sole responsible manager of the enterprise. But is it defined by regulations, what are those strategic decisions, or is it left up to the economic units?

[Answer] Regulations precisely define the area of strategic decisions; in other words, they compel the enterprise councils to make decisions in certain cases. They say: the councils may decide in such and such cases. The precise delimitation is important, because the new forms of enterprise management do not wish to create quarrels between the enterprise councils and the directors.

[Question] The various ministries have already created the independent organs supervising the legality of practices. What kind of measures can they introduce?

[Answer] In the event of trespassing regulations, founding statements, or internal rules, they may--among other steps--issue written warnings to the directors, they can initiate calling them to account by the enterprises, they can void the decisions of the enterprise councils, they can suspend the director or even the entire leadership. Their decisions can be appealed at the ministerial level. Enterprises may take their cases to the courts only if the supervisory organs' decisions eliminate their organizational and operational systems of regulations.

12588

CSO: 2500/326



## DEPUTY MINISTER OUTLINES FOREIGN TRADE DATA

LD231840 [Editorial Report] Budapest Domestic Service in Hungarian at 1400 GMT on 23 August, in its "168 hours" program, broadcasts a 13-minute interview by reporter Zoltan Farkas with Imre Dunai, deputy minister of foreign trade.

Dunai is asked first about the fulfillment of foreign trade plan targets so far this year, that is to say in the first 7 months of 1986. He says that trade in the ruble area is reassuring. The plan had prescribed a 2 percent growth in the volume of ruble exports for this year, he says, but in the first 7 months it grew by 2.4 percent. The expected increase in ruble imports was 5 percent in volume; a 4.7 percent increase was registered in the first 7 months.

However, Dunai goes on, in dollar trade the plan is not being realized. It had prescribed an approximately 5 percent fall in the volume of dollar imports for the year, but in fact it has increased by 8.3 percent in the first 7 months. Expressed in terms of actual value, he says, imports grew by 21 percent compared with the first 7 months of the previous year. This is because of the devaluation of the dollar. Dollar exports were expected to rise by 1 percent in volume in 1986; in the first 7 months they rose by 1.5 percent. Dunai says the two main problems here are the drastic fall of the oil price on the world market--Hungary exports about \$500-550 million worth of oil derivatives, and imports only \$250-300 million worth a year--and the further deterioration of the market situation of the food economy. Last year for example, he continues, wheat was sold at \$132 a metric ton; today it can only fetch about \$100-110. Last year, slaughter pigs sold at around \$650, but this year they will only fetch around \$610-620.

Dunai then goes on to say that the plan has set a target in foreign trade of a \$350-400 million surplus for 1986. However, it can be seen today that it will be very difficult to achieve this. In the first 7 months a deficit of \$456 million has developed in convertible currency trade, which is nearly three times as much as in the same period last year. Because of the above-mentioned deterioration in price relations, a 6 percent fall can be expected in Hungary's exchange rate in convertible trade this year, which is the worst since the first oil price explosion of 1974. The effect of this in dollars will be around 250 million.

In spite of all this, Dunai concludes, Hungary's image in international economic circles will suffer no damage. They can see that the administration is making exceptional efforts to change the production and export structures, with some results already apparent. For example, the volume of machine stock exports has gone up by 16 percent and that of light industry exports by 6 percent.

## BRIEFS

DISCUSSION WITH JAPANESE TU--Budapest, 22 August (MTI)--Sandor Gaspar, president of the Central Council of Hungarian Trade Unions (SZOT), Friday met leaders of a 70-member Japanese delegation currently in Hungary--Oki Sogo, head of the mass organization department of the Japan Socialist Party and former general secretary of the General Council of Trade Unions of Japan (SOHYO) and parliamentary deputy, and Doki Chiyuki, director of the International Trading Centre. Sandor Gaspar and leaders of the Japanese delegation exchanged views on the tasks facing the world's trade unions, and possibilities of developing Hungarian-Japanese trade union relations. [Text] [Budapest MTI in English 1528 GMT 22 Aug 86 LD] /12232

CSO: 2500/476

## GDR ECONOMIC PRECEPTS 'NOT SUITABLE FOR POLAND'

AU021445 Warsaw RZECZYWISTOSC in Polish 20 Jul 86 p 9

[Piotr Olejnik article: "Toward Intensive Economic Development"]

[Excerpts] The European socialist community has now existed for about 40 years, which is a ripe age. Appraising the community's economic development from this distance, we note two basic facts: First, this development has continued in easily distinguishable stages in most socialist countries and, second, these stages have been more or less similar.

This development was marked at its beginning by great socioeconomic reforms, which eliminated the foundations of the propertied classes' existence, and which included agrarian reforms and the nationalization of banks and industry. After this, efforts were made to enormously speed up the process by which central and eastern Europe was transformed from mostly an agricultural and agricultural-industrial area into an industrial-agricultural area. This leap was possible because of unprecedented efforts to promote investments and to radically increase employment, which means that development was based on extensive determining factors and that therefore economic, social, and political tensions were created.

The third stage of development began after 1985 with efforts to make good the previously disturbed proportions of growth and to attempt to reform the economy in order to promote intensive growth based primarily on increased productivity and efficient economic management.

It is necessary to stress that this third stage came to an end before it was able to really develop. For various reasons, including the fact that the results of various changes were not always advantageous, the speed of this stage was checked at the turn of the seventies. At the same time, the successfully developing East-West dialogue produced a closer economic cooperation between the socialist and capitalist countries and loans from the latter to the former. Some members of our community--Poland is the most glaring example, but Hungary and Romania are not far behind--took the loans offered by the capitalist countries in order to modernize the economies, intensify growth, and raise living conditions.

The world economic crisis which has lasted since the mid-seventies except for a few brief periods of economic upturn, has influenced the situation in most socialist countries. At the same time, this crisis has been accompanied by unprecedented worldwide technological progress, involving new production lines of enormous development dynamics, changes in the global structure of the economy, and the appearance of new industrial centers, mainly in the Far East. To cope with all these tasks it was generally decided that major changes were necessary in running and planning the economy. Most socialist countries have been implementing these reforms since the turn of the eighties, but it was only the party congresses last year and this year that stressed the particular importance of these reforms and mapped out the strategic lines of the socialist community countries' development up to the year 2000. It can no doubt be boldly stated that the socialist community has entered the fifth stage of its development after these congresses. Would that this stage is implemented more consistently and extensively than the third stage!

In most socialist countries the basic line of changes and reforms is decentralization of economic processes, greater independence of enterprises, stimulation of market mechanisms, departure from the command system, a better system of incentives for workers, and measures to compel conservation of materials and energy and a greater flexibility of economic management. This process is most advanced in Hungary and relatively least advanced in the CSSR.

But what about Romania and the GDR? It is difficult to analyze development in Romania because of its specific economic situation and other conditions. As for the GDR the institutional changes promoted by it clearly deviate from the basic line of reforms and experiments implemented in some other countries. Generally speaking, the GDR is not interested in increasing the decentralization of all economic processes. It is interested in achieving administrative perfection in planning and running the economy. While maintaining a relatively unchanged and restricted freedom--restricted in comparison with the freedom in Hungary and Poland as well as in the Soviet experimenting enterprises--of combines and enterprises to make decisions, the GDR continues to create a set of perfect tools that would make it possible to achieve all the targets of the "strategy of acceleration" and, first of all, the highest degree of economic security.

It is not our intention to evaluate in this article the results of the reform activities in the individual countries. The indicators of their economic development are determined not only by these activities, but also by such important factors as natural resources, links with foreign countries, the actual economic potential, the development achieved before socialist construction, and so on, and so forth. Nevertheless it is worth devoting a few lines to this issue because it is an issue of some consequence.

Ignoring the particular case of Poland, the unprecedented breakdown of which it makes it impossible to indulge in any meaningful international comparisons, and ignoring Romania with its specific situation, it should be said that in 1979-1985--in the period when the socialist countries embarked on the fifth stage of the development--the increase in the national income was the largest

in the GDR, followed by Bulgaria, the USSR, the CSSR, and Hungary. At the same time, the increase in industrial production was the fastest in Bulgaria, followed by the GDR, the USSR, the CSSR, and Hungary. The sequence of export increases was Bulgaria, Hungary, the CSSR, the GDR, and the USSR; of price increases was Hungary, Bulgaria, the CSSR, the USSR, and the GDR; and of wage increases was the GDR, the USSR, and Bulgaria. But, compared with 1979, real wages increased in the CSSR and Hungary in 1985.

This shows that the GDR and Bulgaria achieved the relatively best indicators of economic development and Hungary the poorest. Does this mean that the Hungarian reform aimed at far-reaching decentralization is little effective and that improved administrative and economic tools employed by the GDR should serve as models for other countries to follow? This is arrogant nonsense. Everyone in Hungary is convinced that without a reform the country's economic situation would have been much worse than it actually is. On the other hand, people in the GDR are perfectly aware that their solutions, which are effective in the disciplined German community known for its diligence and excellent organization, may not necessarily prove to be suitable for, say, Poland.

Only one thing is certain: It is impossible to accelerate and intensify economic development, to cope with the challenges of civilization, and to achieve economic security without reforms and without improving the system of economic performance. The future of the world, of the place in it of the socialist community, and of Poland's place in this community is being determined in the area of the economy. Economic strength will determine the course of events with increasing frequency. Actually, it is already determining it.

/9716

CSO: 2600/658

## DEVELOPMENT OF BRIGADE WORK SYSTEM AT MACHINE TOOL PLANT

Warsaw POLITYKA in Polish No 30, 26 Jul 86 pp 1, 6

[Article by Witold Pawlowski: "A String"]

[Text] I am probably the tenth person today at the Swierczewski Machine Tool Plant who is trying to find out how these brigades of theirs work. They do everything they can to get rid of us. The price of fame, we tell ourselves, and patiently wait. When industry sends management representatives here for interviews they are interested mainly in growth of productivity; the visiting self-managements and trade unions ask first about the growth of wages. Both one and the other receive satisfying replies: Productivity and wages rose 30 to 50 percent. But if they expected memorable discoveries or ingenious ideas underlying the local brigade system, they were disappointed. The Swierczewski plant simply put the most elementary reserves into use. Actually, another subject would have been just as interesting as the brigades themselves: Why did Swierczewski have to wait 40 years for this? And one more thing: If this very simple step has brought such great results and fame, how terrible it must be elsewhere, in those industries whose officers are pounding on the doors and windows here looking for ready solutions. The pioneering idea from WZ-2 consisted merely of combining what were formerly two subunits, soft and hard treatment, into one.

Formerly both treatment subunits had their own management, their own foremen, not always common interests, and their own hardening shop, which separated them. And when, for example, the soft treatment unit was overloaded with work, the hard treatment unit often had nothing to do.

Now everything has been combined into one. Supervision has been cut in half and for the first time the finished product is thought of as being the primary goal.

The first new-style brigade was formed last March, or rather that was when it signed an agreement with the management that it is forming voluntarily. The decision took a long time, and the choice was quite accidental, i.e., it was the only place where there were enough workers willing to experiment. .pa The others preferred to stand on the sidelines and wait and see what comes of this. After all, there had already been many such experiments, and they mainly consisted of finding out how to pay less for better work.

From here on, all that remained to be decided upon between the brigade and the managing director was production and its value. Everything else, i.e., by whom and how, was to be the internal matter of the brigade.

Well, all of the rooters for the new system were afraid of two things: First, what will happen when the coproducers do not do their job or the subassemblies fail, or through no fault of the crew, repairs or machine breakdowns go on for a long time. That is why a clause was inserted in the agreement stating that the management will compensate for the losses sustained during these downtimes. Second, will it not happen that after a period of more productive work the gentlemen who set the norms will appear and raise them. After all, we know how it is: Even the person turning out the most work on a piece-work basis has, in the past, held back a little. That is human nature, and that is what experience has taught: Don't do too much or you will be the loser.

This last reason for fear was eliminated as follows: Henceforth, the calculation of how much someone earned was strictly the brigade's matter and this information was to be only in the hands of the foreman.

This, obviously, was antibureaucratic. It eliminated dozens of pieces of paper, but its primary impact was psychological, for it meant in practice that the zealous workers could rest easy knowing that they would not be penalized for doing more work.

The experiment had to have been a convincing success, because after a month the next brigade signed an agreement, a month later the third, and in June all six brigades were working under the new system. The example, particularly the financial one, was very contagious.

How did all of this look in the worm-cutting center which I observed? Well, just like everywhere else. The attachment to a machine, or rather to the work station, without regard to whether there was any work to do, ended. Now everyone in the brigade is able to do more than one job, work on several machines. This also affects the inspectors, who had free time in the past. Now they are being used in production.

In this way the brigade has become more flexible. It tolerates someone's absence or a work overload at one station more easily, because others pitch in to help. When it is necessary to work overtime, or on a free Saturday, it is done, although these extra worktimes occur only rarely.

The changes in style and method of work which followed were already the consequence of previously approved decisions, and especially of the basic principle that payment is for the final result, and the more produced, the larger the pay. For example, coffee breaks became shorter (down to their planned time), as well as all breaks, and the number of absences from work dropped greatly.



Now for the accepted wage system.

In the worm-cutting section--and a similar pattern prevails in the other brigades--the wages are determined by the foreman, who, together with a five-member group of selected representatives, makes up the brigade executive board.

Wages are made up of three elements. The basic wage is the number of hours worked times the hourly rate. The first large dispute flared up when the amount of the rate was being fixed. It was suggested that advantage should be taken of the occasion and that the rate should be highly escalated. Good, said the brigade executive board, but then the hourly rates will be on a sliding scale and in warranted cases when productivity is lower, etc., they can be cut.

It ended up that the brigade retained its former fixed hourly rates. A bird in the hand is better ...

The second wage component is the bonus for production, and actually its amount calculated in commercial prices. During the first 2 months the board divided them automatically, i.e., by the old method. The entire amount divided by the number of hours worked, and each person paid for the hours he worked.

Then the board became wiser and asked why should everyone be paid the same. By the time the first 3 months ended, individual bonuses were being paid. The hourly bonus was still the starting base, but some deductions were introduced. For scrap, for tardiness, for absences, and other internal transgressions. Here, on the bottom, everyone knows very well whose sick leave is legitimate and who is claiming sick leave while he is earning quick money for something else, or is recovering from an alcoholic binge. The board took advantage of this knowledge and consistently cut pay.

The deductions make up an additional payments kitty--the third component of wages--for those who distinguish themselves.

The worm-cutting sections earned an average of 25,000-27,000 zlotys, but under the new system the average was 35,000, and the wage "chimney" [scales] can bring this up to over 40,000. But production also rose over the course of a year, from 13 million to 20 million.

The next move came about almost spontaneously.

Formerly it was necessary to wait a couple of hours for a mechanic, electrician, or production specialist. Now these lost hours have taken on a completely new dimension--they strike the brigade in the pocketbook, or they have to be made up after hours. In addition, the specialists outside the brigade, when called upon for assistance, asked "how much will you pay, and what do I get out of this? You're making more, why not I?"

That is why the suggestion was made that a seventh group, an auxiliary group, be formed, made up of the indispensable additional specialists which every brigade employs on a fractional-time basis. Now they respond to every call.

The seventh group is made up of a production specialist, a packer, someone from the factory transportation section, etc.

The worm-cutting groups came to the conclusion that there were too many persons in the group--they had to leave. The agreement signed between the brigade and the management provides that the composition and size of the brigade can be established at will. The cutters have also changed in this respect: They now stop to think whether something can be done more simply and more rapidly, using additional help and instrumentation.

The new brigade system acts like a string, they tell me. One pulls the other behind it.

This really is the essence of this system. It turned out that when the brigades govern themselves, do their own accounting and watch over themselves, and the only thing they ask for is materials, more materials, then the average amount of supervision is not necessary. Hence the suggestion occurred spontaneously.

They say in the worm-cutting section that the old division into those who think and those who do has disappeared. Anyone who wants to stand on the sidelines will be left behind. Financially also. And paradoxically, despite the fact that a person works harder, he works more calmly, without the former ups and downs connected with downtime periods.

What else is disturbing, I ask. Actually there is just the problem of raw materials. The coproducers are still not working in our brigade system, they laugh. The factory is also trying as best as it can to meet its obligations and it has still not been necessary for it to compensate the brigades for downtime losses.

How do the other workers treat them? A moment of consternation. They envy them their higher wages, but they themselves are not always eager to join in the experiment. Sure, brigades are being formed in other departments, but not as rapidly as might be expected. Rather there is the fear that this will not work there. They say in the worm-cutter section that it is mainly the cadres who take the conservative view.

The new brigade system very quickly exposes the factory's weak points and its incompetent people.

In Swierczewski, perhaps just as everywhere else, there is a shortage of labor and it will probably be a long time under these circumstances before the factory will want to fire someone unessential. Therefore, no one is threatened with loss of his job, but as the system engulfs more and more people, produces new leaders, a good number of people, it seems, will have to leave their present jobs. Obviously they fear the challenge that reform offers them.

More than one group is afraid that it will not be able to keep up with the new increased duties. Fast-moving work in brigades is good for the energetic and experienced. So that young workers can adapt and not spoil the high average, the factory subsidizes them during the initial period. It is certain, however, that just as in every workforce, there are a considerable number of

those whose two left hands stand in the way, that it is hard for them to meet the escalated norms. Where will they go?

At present the system has only its winners. It acts like a magnet which attracts that which is best. By the end of July the WZ-1 department will become part of the system, then the next two, and it will become more and more crowded.

Up to now, as I said, the factory has boldly, for our conditions, made use of its simple production reserves. It utilized them where everything was measurable and easily convertible to results. What will happen next? Can the entire complex factory system be converted to brigades? In Swierczewski they are just beginning to work on overall concepts and they do not want to show their cards right now. What about the administration, the office building, the nonproductive part?

We can only speculate. We can imagine a brigade of bookkeepers and even a brigade of managers, everyone connected with production.

This reformed division will certainly produce a new set of group conflicts or divergent interests. Will the "producers" at the bottom level, those who directly generate income, not want to impose their own rules of play? What about progress and innovativeness? The "more and faster" system prefers production that is familiar and large serial production rather than something new. What about plant expansion? How much money will they want to throw into the common pool? And to go on, what about the welfare function of the factory, so expanded thus far? Up to now this was abstract money, nobody's—just as were the idle hours spent formerly in waiting for the electrician who was in no hurry to correct the problem. Now they assume a more concrete dimension.

Still more. If in the brigades the division into thinkers and doers is disappearing, it must be highly evident throughout the entire factory, and in addition, the brain must be just as efficient as the hands. Because it may happen that that which the brigade produces so abundantly no one will want to buy any longer.

And the habit of well-organized work and more money may be like a tiger released from a cage. It is hard to become unaccustomed from both one and the other. Just as difficult as it was for the Poznan workers to become accustomed to the postwar poor quality they found in their workplaces.

Up to this point we have said a great deal about the hands, about the direct producers. It is they who are affected by many organizational and wage experiments.

But little is said about the brains in the factory.

I met with two opposing opinions. One says that the technical-engineering staff is burning to get to work, if only it were be allowed to spread its wings and be properly paid. The other opinion says the the years of low flights has deprived them of all ambition, and furthermore they have not had

an opportunity to develop the skill of independent thinking and risk-taking. And also in recent years it was highly depleted of its most energetic individuals, who set up their own businesses, including fruit-and-vegetable businesses.

I believe that the truth lies somewhere in between. Creative and ambitious workers can be found. The new conditions would make use of their yet-unused skills. But there are still many who because of their age and predisposition would prefer to receive much more modest wages and lesser demands upon them than to take risks. Here, too, conservative attitudes play a part.

Cadre inspection, announced on the central level, has been conducted autonomously at the Swierczewski plant for a long time. The judge, in addition to special committees augmented by randomly selected subordinates, is life itself and events as they develop.

Experience has shown that the brigade foremen are the most decisive element in the cadre organization. In the new system they have also built up the greatest authority. With the help of the brigade self-managements, they function more effectively than the old system of directives and prohibitions. It is important that they understand the factory and its mechanisms, and that they feel that they are co-managers who must be dealt with it.

Other experience has shown that it is extremely important to appoint a reserve cadre and judge it in action, but it should not be too large because waiting for years for a promised promotion brings about more stress than the good that it does.

Everything points to the fact that the real experiment in Swierczewski will not begin until it enters the stage of plant-wide operations. But even this is not enough. No factory is an island. It is a link in a chain. There is no joy in being a strong link in a weak chain. To live we must export; in order to export, we must expand more rapidly--truisms which must be translated into the language of specifics.

That is why the most interesting part is still ahead of us. But the Swierczewski plant has crossed the magic boundary which separates words from deeds and ostensible actions from real actions. For many, this continues to be an unsurmountable obstacle.

9295

CSO: 2600/613

## REASONS FOR INCREASED TRAFFIC ACCIDENTS ANALYZED

Bucharest LUPTA CFR in Romanian 1 Feb 86 p 4

[Article by Dinu Lazarescu: "Strong Measures Taken To Improve Traffic Safety in the Transportation Sector"]

[Text] A series of traffic accidents that took place in the final trimester of last year and in the first month of 1986 has urgently raised the problem of serious deficiencies in traffic safety and worker protection in the CTA transport enterprises. The fact that a third of the 90 accidents that took place in 1985 occurred in the last 3 months of the year and that we are again witnessing a veritable recrudescence of this negative phenomenon can only be explained by a lack of concern and responsibility on the part of the managers of ITA and other authorities who are directly in traffic safety.

Analyzing the causes of the accidents last year, we have established that 46 percent were due to inadequate attention on the part of the drivers--and that is the case with the transport enterprises of Suceava, Cluj, Maramures, Salaj, Gorj, Bucharest Baslui and Teleorman--22 percent were due to speed that was excessive or inappropriate to the unfavorable weather conditions, which led to accidents by drivers belonging to I.T.A. Brasov, Iasi, Olt, Vilcea, Vrancea, Buzau, while 15 percent were due to violations of the law. Thus, in all these cases, the guilty parties were the drivers, who ignored the norms of defensive driving, at the same time violating the traffic laws in force.

It should also be noted that of all accidents reported, 40 percent were caused by bus drivers, even though buses make up just 25 percent of all motor vehicle equipment belonging to Auto Central Transport (CTA) of the M.T.Tc. This is the most convincing proof of the fact that this group of drivers either has not paid sufficient attention to or has taken much too lightly the accidents that they caused during the year. For instance, consider the serious traffic accident caused by driver Grigore Bujenita of the Vaslui I.T.A. On 23 January of this year, while at the wheel of vehicle 31-VS-963, and while negotiating a double curve at excessive speed, he careened off the highway and overturned, causing the loss of his own life and those of two other operators who were in the cabin. The question arises: was that trucker equipped to drive a motor vehicle on the public roads? Did he meet the moral and professional requirements that confer upon him the right to be a partner in traffic safety?

His personnel record gives us the answer. Over the years he had been repeatedly cited for traffic violations: drunk driving, profiteering, speeding, suspension of his driving license, causing accidents...a whole slew of deficiencies which, by themselves, would have excluded him from the wheel of an I.T.A. motor vehicle. Yet despite all that, the motor pool chief kept him in the unit and, what's more, gave him the endorsement to drive. Now when we analyze the causes of the accident, can that motor pool chief be excluded from the list of the guilty? We would reckon not, since, had he shouldered his responsibility and dismissed such a character from the unit in due course, the 23 January accident would never have taken place.

We find the lack of responsibility at Vaslui in different forms at other I.T.A.s as well. At Ialomita, David Dumitru, a traffic safety technician, scored only 13 points on a test conducted by the police, far below the necessary minimum. At that same I.T.A., of 103 bus drivers tested, only 27 passed, while at one of its motor pools, namely the one at Urziceni, only 3 drivers showed up for the test. In such instances the disciplinary "training bar" could certainly be raised!

We find a similar situation at the Tulcea I.T.A., where the police could not organize the test because not a single driver showed up, while at motor pool 3 of the Bucharest I.T.A., the large majority of recording tachometers are out of order and the fleet of buses is in a totally unsatisfactory condition. If we add to all of this the fact that a large number of drivers with serious offenses are regularly kept on transporting passengers, while those charged with maintaining controls only go through the motions, seldom interested in disturbing the clean records of guilty drivers--we can begin to see the lack of discipline that holds sway in a large number of I.T.A.s when it comes to traffic safety.

It was this unsatisfactory state of discipline at these I.T.A.s that made possible the above-mentioned accidents, as well as some infractions of socialist norms of ethics and fairness. We refer in particular to the cases of bribes taken at the Botosani and Giurgiu I.T.A., where some traffic controllers were found taking money from guilty drivers, as well as those of the Alba and Teleorman I.T.A. where everyone was graded by technical inspectors motivated by greed.

Thus those persons who sooner or later lead to accidents make their entrance through the door of permission, jeopardizing traffic safety, and along with it, the human lives and material goods entrusted to them.

Given such a situation, can the directors of the I.T.A. be excluded from direct guilt? Indeed, was it not because of the manifestly low level of supervision that the climate for lack of discipline and the development of corresponding activities was made possible? It should be remembered that in most of these same enterprises, the economic efficiency goals were not realized.

The accidents that occurred only confirm the fact that work in traffic safety has developed at an unsatisfactory level. Not all cadres charged to act in this important sector have the necessary professional capacity.



This is a serious alarm signal for the leadership of the I.T.A. as well as for that of the C.T.A. and its special service, which must urgently take the firm decisive measures needed to instill a climate of discipline in that sector, with a view to avoiding the recurrence of the kinds of traffic accidents that have taken place up till now.

This is a major aspect of the problem. But equally important are the organizational measures that must be taken by the leadership of the C.T.A. This means establishing the best conditions to assure that traffic safety will proceed on a new path. It entails the need to provide professional checks of every motor vehicle driver, the absolute obligation of each I.T.A. to check all cadres involved in traffic safety, the need for action to inculcate a healthy, responsible attitude in every member of the work collective. The fact should not be overlooked that of all the accidents reported in 1985, 18 percent were by drivers with 1-5 years seniority, while 46 percent had 10-20 years of seniority! What does that mean? That drivers with greater seniority (who have created for themselves within the I.T.A., in some totally unexplained manner, a special "Nonsense!" system, wherein they do not participate in personnel school or in any other form of instruction), that is, those who cause a greater number of accidents, display a high degree of inattention behind the wheel, thinking that the degree of routine that they have reached will protect them from accidents.

This is precisely what proves to be the main cause of accidents. The entire driver collective of a unit should thus be lined up at the same gate both to be made aware of knowledge and attitudes and to be able to share their best experience.

On another level we deem it necessary for the medical network to make itself more actively felt in all units of the I.T.A. to examine the physical capacity of the work force upon departure and for regular eye checkups, since experience has shown that a large number of drivers cannot correctly judge the distance between themselves and approaching objects, nor the speed with which they are closing. What is being done now to confirm the professional capacity of the motor vehicle driver--verification of sobriety--is insufficient. The driver's state of fatigue must also be determined, along with other subjective factors that could diminish the motor vehicle driver's work capacity and attention.

It is equally important that the psychological laboratories play a more decisive role in putting together a psycho-social-professional picture of the motor vehicle driver in the man-machine-road equation. But the implementation of such a portrait must be based on his knowledge, aptitude and daily attitudes, in the presence of his division chief, i.e., the man who sees him on a daily basis and has to know his efficiency as well as his behavior. It seems that at present the elements used to carry out psychological testing have much too general a character and too few specifics needed for the job of motor vehicle driver.

Taken together, the measures that urgently need to be adopted by the C.T.A. on the one hand and the I.T.A. on the other must be conducted in such a way that they result simultaneously in substantially improving traffic safety and creating optimal conditions for the integral realization of the goals of the 1986 plan.



## WESTERN JOURNALIST SEES MIKULIC TURNING AWAY FROM MARKET ECONOMY

Frankfurt/Main FRANKFURTER ALLGEMEINE in German 25 Aug 86 p 12

[Article by Viktor Meier: "Mikulic Quits Market Economy"]

[Text] In late June, the Party Congress of Yugoslav Communists had officially acknowledged market economy ideas. The "stabilization program" adopted 4 years ago, to which the new government under Mikulic expressly agreed, is based on these ideas. Meanwhile many Yugoslavs notice with growing astonishment that, in practice, the Mikulic government is implementing anything but market economy considerations. It tries to keep prices low or even decrease them through administrative measures, although it had previously expressly promised to operate only with "economic" measures. A special sensation was caused by the manipulation of the price of bread, which at first was "set free," then taken back in view of the concern among the population, and was finally increased administratively in a "justifiable" fashion. Experts in Yugoslavia are of the opinion that the Belgrade federal bureaucracy either proved its inability to implement economic policy, or else, somebody had deliberately tried to discredit the principle of market economy in the eyes of the population.

The Mikulic government started in May under favorable premises: the falling of the dollar, interest rates and the oil price will probably save the country about \$2 billion per year. At first, Yugoslav economic circles held the opinion that the new government simply wanted to govern. This was the reason for the great number of decrees, some of them of a centralistic nature. But now it appears to be clear that the turning away from market economy ideas is of a fundamental, ideological-political character. Mikulic, who comes from Bosnia, was always considered an adherent of conservative communist beliefs, although he concealed them under a certain pragmatism. As early as last autumn, a group of professors started a so-called "anti-inflationary program," which provided for "programmed inflation" and more or less openly opposed the recommendations of the International Monetary Fund. These professors are part of a group, particularly strong in Zagreb, which rejects market economy and wants to replace it with a system of agreements between enterprises. It soon became evident that Mikulic was behind these sallies. Shortly after taking office, the government broke off all consultations with economic experts embracing market economy ideas. Since then, the Marxist concept of "goods production" instead of "market" keeps appearing more and more in

government pronouncements. Professor Kovac of Belgrade, one of the fathers of the stabilization program, was taken into the government, but lately his influence has dwindled. Slovenian representatives in the government complain that their votes aiming at liberal and federative solutions are hardly acknowledged.

Apart from price regulations, the anti-market orientation of the Mikulic government has the most serious consequences for interest rates and fixing of the dinar exchange rate. Instead of introducing "real" interest rates as recommended by the International Monetary Fund, which correspond at least to the inflation level, today they are not even approximately adjusted to that level. The standard interest rate is 56 percent at present, with an inflation rate of 80 percent. The "real" exchange rate of the dinar, which is adjusted to the development of inflation and is to promote exports, today is much too low, at least in the opinion of Slovenia's Chamber of Commerce.

This latter point is particularly significant because, since introduction of the new centralized foreign exchange rate system at the beginning of this year, the "real" dinar exchange rate has remained the only actual incentive for exports, especially to the West. Export enterprises must pay over to a central cash office all foreign currency earned and then, via an export permit from Belgrade, must laboriously retrieve the foreign currency needed to keep their enterprise going. The National Bank artificially delays payment for approved imports.

Slovenia, which carries out 32 percent of all exports in convertible currencies, is not the only one to feel it, but all export enterprises of the country are hit. As a matter of fact, Yugoslav exports decreased under the new system: compared to the previous year, exports dropped by 1.5 percent during the first 7 months of this year, and in certain regions such as Kosovo, even up to 30 percent. The highly promising start of the export of a small Yugoslavian car to the United States (by the "Zavasta" firm in Kragujevac) is threatened with failure, because the ancillary enterprises cannot keep up; the reason for it is that, frequently, needed materials cannot be imported.

There are indications that the new government is already beginning to become ensnared in its administrative and centralistic way of thinking. The basis for such action, namely a functioning central administration, is lacking in Yugoslavia. The attempted price freeze may bring about a momentary slowing down of inflation but, as was demonstrated 2 or 3 years ago, it can only be maintained to the point when shortages of goods begin to appear on the market. The parallel attempt of a wage freeze has already led to more strikes and unrest among the labor force. Yugoslavs feel they have already borne enough reductions in their standard of living during the last 5 years. It is possible that something could be done in the monetary sector, but the Yugoslav National Bank seems neither politically nor factually capable of it.

The International Monetary Fund has criticized the deviation from attempted market economy solutions, but it has withdrawn from regular control of the Yugoslav crisis. Servicing of the almost unchanged debts of \$20 billion seems somewhat assured, albeit with rescheduling measures. The next review is only due next January. By then, the administrative "revolt" against the Monetary Fund will probably entangle the government even more strongly in various interests and pressures so that, in the end, it can only react instead of act. In October it intends to pass a number of long-term measures, among them some concerning energy and technology matters. It is already clear that the government will make hardly any progress in changing the tax system, i.e., freeing enterprises from the numerous non-economic burdens. In agriculture, also, it can only take administrative measures because, for political reasons, it is not able to establish fair agricultural market prices.

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## SED HOUSING POLICY PROMISES, RESULTS ASSESSED

Cologne DEUTSCHLAND ARCHIV in German Vol 19 No 7, Jul 86 (signed to press 30 Jun 86) pp 735-745

[Article by Dr Gernot Schneider, former professor at the College of Economics in East Berlin, now member of the academic staff for Economic Sciences at the East Europe Institute of the Free University of Berlin in West Berlin: "The Solution of the Housing Question as a Social Problem in the GDR: an Interim Balance"]

[Text] The economic and social policy enacted at the Eighth SED Party Congress (June 1971) as the long-term "main economic task" ultimately aims at arousing among the population a greater readiness for the political acceptance of the GDR model of society.

The housing construction program was of special importance in this context. According to the Politburo resolution on the reconstruction of "Berlin, the capital," (27 March 1973), and mentioned for the first time at the Ninth SED CC Plenum (28 May 1973), the housing construction program represented a notable expansion as well as a projection of the "main task," in particular because concrete and verifiable targets and dates were available. According to these, 2.8-3 million housing units and the pertinent social facilities were to be provided by new construction or modernization. Wolfgang Junker, GDR minister for Construction, said that this would make it possible to solve the housing question as a social problem. This meant primarily the abolition of those indecent housing conditions that socialism had--innocently--inherited after 1945 from the capitalist era--characterized by exploitation and oppression. Many of these old buildings, Junker said, "no longer (meet) the need, specially with regard to their equipment and hygienic facilities,"(1) the majority having evidently been occupied in the past by those who, according to political doctrine, were members of the ruling class. Minister Junker commented: "On the other hand it is a fact that the standard of working class housing conditions is often lower by comparison with other strata of the general population."(2)

The housing construction program was designed to bring about gradual improvement, "benefit everyone whether in the cities or in the countryside."

It was to establish housing conditions "that will reinforce the pride of the working people in their socialist homeland and encourage the development of its socialist lifestyle." (3)

The city architect of Karl-Marx-Stadt (Chemnitz) had not the slightest doubt that this social objective could definitely not be realized with residential buildings dating from the time before 1918, because their functional efficiency was badly impaired and "far reaching demolition" (4) required. A year later, it was still assumed that 2.6 million of the 4.8 million housing units constructed before 1945 were "not worth modernizing," and another 2.2 million should be maintained only "until, about 20 years from now, their replacement will be possible after block demolition." (5)

Tremendous expectations were aroused regarding the promised solution of the housing question as a social problem. (6) Many works were written, dealing with the quality of housing, nor was there a lack of statements on what people should imagine "socialist housing construction" to look like. To cite just one example: "Socialist urban planning is distinguished by the fact that it meets the demands of the people in socialism for both a practical as well as a beautiful and esthetically satisfactory spatial environment." (7)

The widely publicized slogan ran: "Not just an apartment for everyone, but for everyone his own apartment. The rational allocation normative elaborated in the Soviet Union was introduced in the course of the discussion about the "proper size of living space." According to this normative, the number of rooms in an apartment should exceed the number of residents (N) by one (N + 1).

In short: In combination with the other objectives of SED economic and social policy, the realization of the biggest sociopolitical task "ever tackled" was to post facto help legitimize the SED's claim to power and keep the promise given the GDR population by Walter Ulbricht in the form of the "main economic task" even before the construction of the wall. (9)

To demonstrate the dimensions of the housing construction program, I will insert some remarks on the starting situation and framework conditions:

1. The median residential population on GDR territory declined from a high of 19.1 million (1947) via 17.1 million (1961) to 16.6 million (1985). The figures for potential customers for living space therefore dropped quite steadily. The FRG, on the other hand, was compelled after the end of World War II and later to make room for about 16 additional million people and supply the urgently needed housing.

2. In 1939, some 16.7 million residents lived in the territory of the present GDR, and housing density was 3.35, lower than in the territory of the present Federal Republic of Germany (3.70 persons per unit). Affected by wartime destruction and population movements, this ratio had worsened by 1950 to 3.71 (GDR) and 4.72 (FRG). At this time GDR housing density stands at 2.40 and FRG density at just under 2.30.

3. In 1973 the GDR had available roughly 6.2 million housing units, 1 million having been constructed in the years 1945-1973. This corresponded to an almost 17 percent renewal rate. In the same year the FRG boasted about 22 million housing units, and 13 million of this total had been constructed since 1945 (around 60 percent renewal rate).

4. The rate of destruction of the housing stock looked as follows at the end of the war:(10)

	Housing Stock (millions)		Percentage Destroyed in the War
	1939	1946	
Western Zones	10.5	7.9	24.8
Eastern Zone	4.6	4.0	13.0
Berlin	1.5	0.7	53.3

#### Quantitative Development of Output

Table 1 provides us with the first insight in the performance of GDR housing construction to date. Considering Honecker's renewed call at the Eleventh SED Party Congress for an increase in completed housing units of more than 1 million in 1986-1990 (11), it appears that the capacity limits of housing construction have been almost reached in the past 5 years. This probably applies most of all to the construction of new housing. In 1981 this achieved its highest output in absolute terms--125,731 apartments, while in 1985 merely 120,728 new housing units were completed, and only 118,600 new buildings were planned for 1986. On the other hand, the percentage of modernized or reconstructed housing units in old buildings rose spectacularly from 7 percent in 1961 (1961-1965 5-year average: 9 percent) to 29 percent in 1980 and to 43 percent last year (1981-1985 5-year average: 38 percent). In some regions, Leipzig for example, the 1985 figures for "modernizations" exceeded the output of new construction (52 percent according to the plan). By virtue of "economic reasonableness,"(12) this trend will continue everywhere in the GDR. According to the state budget, 121,654 new housing units were constructed at a cost of just below M3.1 billion (no separate figures were given for cooperative and private housing construction). This means roughly M25,500 per housing unit, while it was possible in the same year to modernize 83,380 units in old buildings at a cost of M370 million (M4,300 per unit).(13)

Table 1 also demonstrates the difference in the rate of growth of the living space provided and housing units constructed. Since 1976 the numbers of units have grown faster than living space. In combination with Table 2 we see confirmed the fact that in the last 5-year plan period especially the growth of newly constructed housing units proceeded at the expense of unit size. The share of smaller apartments has risen since 1980 in particular. On the one hand this corresponds to the structure of households (see Table 2), on the other it neglects the need for larger units.

Moreover, the 1981-1985 rise in the output of new housing construction was possible only at the expense of buildings for leisure and recreational purposes. While, for example, new housing construction from 1971-1975 and 1976-1980 also involved the construction of 45 indoor swimming pools each, construction capacities could not manage more than 18 such pools in the last 5-year plan period. Even more spectacular is the decline in the construction of new residential sports centers--and this certainly is not due to incipient saturation: While one indoor swimming pool served around 8,200 housing units in the FRG as long ago as 1976, GDR residents of 34,000 apartments had to share one indoor pool in 1985.

Table 1: The Output of GDR Housing Construction in 5-Year Segments 1961-1985

Indicator	1961/65	1966/70	1971/75	1976/80	1981/85
Living space provided by new construction, modernization and expansion (1,000 square meters)	21,700	19,600	27,600	35,700	37,800*
Percentage change in the living space compared with previous 5-year period	-	./.. 10%	+ 41%	+ 29%	+ 6%
Total housing units provided by new construction, modernization, expansion	400,300	363,982	606,666	813,127	988,880
Percentage growth of all housing units compared with previous 5-year period	-	./.. 9%	+ 67%	+ 34%	+ 22%
Living space per completed housing unit (square meters and 5-year average)	54	53	45	44	38
Housing units provided in new buildings	362,688	296,669	399,586	559,387	613,166
Percentage growth of units in new buildings compared with previous 5-year period	-	./.. 18%	+ 35%	+ 40%	+ 10%
Percentage of units in new buildings in total housing provided	91%	82%	66%	69%	62%

\* 1985 value estimated



Table 2: Percentage Breakdown of Housing Unit Size Groups in Industrial Units in New Buildings

Size of Living Space (square meters)	1960	1965	1970	1975	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
up to 40	5.6	9.1	7.2	12.5	3.8	4.2	4.7	5.7	6.2	9.6
41 up to 60	64.6	76.0	70.8	61.8	70.8	66.0	66.5	65.6	65.1	71.4
61 up to 70	23.5	11.0	13.9	16.3	18.8	24.9	21.0	21.5	22.0	15.0
71 up to 80	4.3	3.6	7.3	8.1	6.3	4.3	7.5	7.0	6.5	3.9
more than 70	2.0	0.3	0.9	1.3	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1

The Structures of Households and Housing Units in 1981 and 1984

Households: Total	1-Person	2-Person	3-Person	4-Person	5 & More Person
1981			Households		

6,509,932	1,728,691	1,764,106	1,465,986	1,122,928	428,221
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6,562,467	525,754	2,165,987	2,429,700	987,921	453,105
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Units: Total	1-Room	2-Room	3-Room	4-Room	5 & More Room
1981			Housing Units		

Housing Units 1984

6,817,986	555,415	2,176,671	2,547,928	1,055,491	482,463
% 100	8.1	31.9	37.9	15.5	7.1

Source: Computed from Statistisches Jahrbuch der DDR 1985 [1985 GDR Statistical Yearbook], Staatsverlag, East Berlin 1985, pp 170/171 and 275

Lastly, the small percentage of private home construction in the construction of new residential buildings is another reason for the growth of completed new housing in the last 5-year plan period. As living space in private homes is often more than twice as great as in tenement buildings(14), and the cost of private home construction is considerably greater than that of industrial housing construction in large-scale settlements(15), the expansion of private home construction would have an adverse effect on the total of completed new housing--given the available construction capacities.

Size of Family	Built by Traditional or Assembly Construction Methods			Prefabricated Houses		
	Since 1972	From 1.1.1983	From 1.1.1985	Since 1972	From 1.1.1983	From 1.1.1985
up to 4 Persons	65.0 TM	82.0 TM	90.5 TM	65.0 TM	75.0 TM	81.4 TM
up to 5 Persons	70.0 TM	89.0 TM	99.6 TM	70.0 TM	82.0 TM	90.9 TM
up to 6 Persons	75.0 TM	98.0 TM	110.7 TM	75.0 TM	89.0 TM	98.6 TM
More than 6	80.0 TM	105.0 TM	119.8 TM	80.0 TM	96.0 TM	107.2 TM

See Decree on the Encouragement of the Construction of Private Homes of 20 December 1971, GBl II No 80/1971 of 20 December 1971, pp 709-712, Third Implementing Regulations to the Private Home Decree (31 August 1978) of 10 February 1983, GBl I No 6 1983, p 65, and Fourth Implementing Decree to the Private Home Decree of 7 August 1984, GBl I No 28 1984, p 319.

The present record in private home construction was achieved in the last 5-year plan period with 21,463 units in 1981. The 1986 plan figure is lower by 47 percent.

Since 1971, roughly 161,000 private homes have been built in the GDR. The average percentage of private home construction in total new GDR housing construction is therefore about 12 percent. The comparable figures for Romania are 20 percent, Poland 30 percent, the CSSR 33 percent, Bulgaria 35 percent and Hungary 70 percent. Only 6 percent of all GDR private homes were constructed as row houses (CSSR: 14 percent) (16). However, they are to benefit from greater attention in future, because up to 50 percent of site development costs and up to 30 percent of construction costs may be saved in row house construction, while energy needs for heating also drop by up to 30 percent.

At the present time the GDR public may choose from 24 centrally confirmed project types. The majority of private homes constructed up to now are located in villages (55 percent) and small or medium cities (40 percent), only 5 percent are found on the outskirts of large cities.(18) As a consequence of a housing construction policy that badly neglects the private home, the percentage of one and two-family homes in the total housing stock declined from 46 percent (1961) to slightly more than 35 percent, while such homes account for more than 50 percent in the CSSR. In the FRG about 18.25 million housing units were generated in 1949-1985, including more than 6 million one and two-family homes,(20) so that their percentage of the total housing stock has risen from 41 percent (1961) to just about 44 percent. The speed-up of private home construction in the FRG is not limited by the capacities of the construction industry but rather by the sharp rise in costs. Thirty years ago some 4 yearly net incomes of employee families were sufficient to pay off a one-family home, almost 8 yearly net disposable incomes were required to do so.(21) Nevertheless, trade cycle students forecast a demand for 300,000 new housing units per annum, including 240,000 private homes and coop apartments.(22)

#### Qualitative Performance Development

A full answer to the question of the progress achieved in the solution of the housing question as a social problem is possible only if the results of the housing construction effort are judged according to the criteria initially explained in this article. The original objective was stated as the creation of housing conditions that would remove the injustices of the prewar standard and encourage the evolution of socialist personalities, the development of a socialist lifestyle.(23) Though many good rather than a few luxurious housing units were to be built,(24) housing construction was intended to lower or prevent social differences and facilitate conditions appropriate to family life, to leisure and satisfaction as well as create a healthy

environment.(25) Judged by these criteria, GDR housing construction failed to turn away from the vast satellite settlements that are actually no more than featureless dormitory towns. This situation will not change even though greater emphasis will in the near future be given the construction of new housing in the inner cities. The large majority of new housing will continue to be located in special new settlement areas, though GDR Construction Minister Junker called for an end to this practice as long ago as 1973.(26)

All over the world, the discussion rages how to disentangle and loosen up by architectural measures these ghetto-like large settlements (though they do not usually consist of more than 15,000 apartments). The United States and Sweden indeed are contemplating demolition of these tenements, largely constructed in the 1960's, and Federal Construction Minister Oscar Schneider recommends stopping the construction of tower blocks and satellite towns because the "tower block euphoria" does not meet the wishes of potential residents, and apartments in such buildings are steadily harder to sell or rent.(27) The GDR, on the other hand, continues to construct far bigger blocks for "warehousing" gainfully employed persons with children. An example is offered by the East Berlin Marzahn city district with 62,000 apartments (28) and more than 200,000 residents. This displaced from its leading status the Prenzlauer Berg city district, built and notorious prewar for his extremely dense settlement. Also to be mentioned are the East Berlin Hohenschonhausen city district and Leipzig-Gruenau with 35,000 apartments each and the new East Berlin Hellersdorf city district, where about 43,500 apartments are to be constructed by 1990.(29)

Social tensions flourish in such densely settled conurbations and directly conflict with the boasted social benefits of new housing construction. The virtually synchronized daily rhythm of the residents (mainly workers) means that they tend to meet in extreme situations (in crowded elevators or public transport or local retail stores and nursery schools), and that they are usually adversely affected by these mass encounters. Another factor is the GDR manner of controlling and managing housing. The state owned enterprises are usually handed their quota of new housing in complete blocks. As a result, their employees are on top of one another not only on the job but also in their residential quarters. Given these and other conditions, it is not surprising that the desire for individual space--for gardens and weekend homes--remains unchanged especially among the residents of new residential districts.(30) This type of industrial housing construction, though certainly productive (31) and low cost, at best solves the "billeting" not the housing question as a social problem. At that, the yearning for weekend homes in part negates the financial benefits of low state subsidized rents and, in terms of the economy and due to the increase demand for construction materials, diminishes the effects of the materials conserving mass production of living space.

In 1949-1985, some 18.25 million housing units were constructed in the FRG, including more than 6 million in one and two-family houses,(20) so that their percentage in the total housing stock rose from 41 percent (1961) to just about 44 percent. The failure of private home construction in the FRG to speed up even more is due not to the lack of capacity in the construction industry but to rising costs. Thirty years ago, 4 average yearly incomes of a

worker's family sufficed to pay off a private home; in 1984 this required almost 8 years of net disposable income.(21) Trade cycle researchers nevertheless forecast a demand for 300,000 new housing units in the next few years, including 240,000 in privately owned homes and coop apartments.(22)

#### Qualitative Development of Output

The answer to the question of the advances achieved in the solution of the housing question as a social problem is complete only when the results of housing construction are judged by the criteria initially described. The original objective was the provision of housing conditions that were to abolish the injustices of prewar standards and encourage the evolution of socialist personalities, the development of a socialist lifestyle.(23) Many good rather than luxurious units were to be constructed (24) with the intention to lessen or prevent social distinctions, facilitate family life, help gain and sensibly organize leisure as well as create a healthy environment.(25)

Judged by these standards, GDR housing construction did not succeed in carrying out the turn away from the giant satellite towns that actually are no more than featureless dormitory towns. Even the intention in the near future to emphasize the construction of new housing in the inner cities will do little to change the overall picture. The overwhelming majority of new housing will continue to be located in separate new districts, though GDR Construction Minister Junker called for the abolition of this practice as long ago as 1973.(26)

Elsewhere in the world, the discussion rages how to disentangle and loosen up these ghetto-like giant settlements that, as a rule, have hardly more than 15,000 housing units. The U.S.A. and Sweden are actually contemplating the demolition of these units, largely constructed in the 1960's. Federal Construction Minister Oscar Schneider also recommends the abandonment of tower blocks and satellite towns, because the "tower block euphoria" does not meet the wishes of prospective occupiers, and it is increasingly difficult to sell or rent apartments in such projects.(27) The GDR, on the other hand, continues to construct much bigger facilities for "warehousing" working people with children. An example is Marzahn, an East Berlin city district with 62,000 apartments (28) and more than 200,000 residents. This has replaced Prenzlauer Berg city district, built prewar and formerly ranked No 1 in notoriety as the most densely populated district. Also to be mentioned are Hohenschonhausen, another East Berlin city district, and Leipzig-Gruenau with 35,000 apartments each and the new Hellersdorf city district of East Berlin, where some 43,500 housing units are to be constructed by 1990.(29)

Social tensions tend to occur in such densely populated conurbations. They directly contradict the social claims of new housing construction. The almost synchronous rhythm of daily life of the residents, most of whom are working, means that they meet mainly in extreme situations (overcrowded elevators or public transportation, or local stores and creches), and their reactions tend to be negative. The problem is added to by the manner of controlling and managing housing practiced in the GDR. Usually state owned enterprises are allocated their quota of new housing in the shape of entire housing blocks.

This has the result that the employees are on top of one another not only on the job but in their residences also. In these and other circumstances it is not surprising that the desire for one's own space--for gardens and weekend homes--continues unabated among residents of new settlements.(30) This type of industrial housing construction is certainly highly productive (31) and cost saving, but at best it solves the question of billeting, not that of housing as a social problem. Furthermore, the yearning for a weekend home in part cancels out the financial advantages of government subsidized low rents and--due to the increased demand for construction materials--the effect on the national economy of the materials conserving mass production of housing space.

Any qualitative analysis must include a more exact determination of the standard of the housing stock. The 1985 housing stock in the GDR boasted about 6.9 million units represented a national asset of M220 billion (32) (see Table 3). The 871 AWG [workers housing construction cooperatives] manage around 1 million housing units--valued at roughly M25 billion (33). Consequently, every AWG apartment represents an average value of M25,000, while all other apartments are assessed at roughly M33,000 per unit.

Table 3 shows that, by comparison with 1977-1981, conspicuously little old building stock has been replaced by new buildings in recent years (no more than 30 percent).

When we consider the 1985 structure of housing units by yearly construction groups, assuming that all new buildings constructed since 1971 as replacements for old building stock (726,503 apartments) exclusively benefited the elimination of the oldest housing units (an unrealistic assumption in practical terms), we note the following:

Almost 58 percent of the total 1985 housing stock in the GDR dated from the years before 1945 (in 1978, 36 percent of FRG housing had been built prior to 1949), and almost 23 percent of all GDR housing was built before 1900, including about 540,000 one-family and another 230,000 two-family houses (FRG in 1978: 22 percent of all housing built before 1918).(34)

Table 3: The Development of the GDR Housing Stock 1970-1985

Year	Housing Stock	New Housing Construction	Replacement of Old Stock		Absolute Net Gain
			Absolute	Percentage of New Construction	
1970	6,057,032	-	-	-	-
1977	6,448,966	609,503	217,569	36%	391,934
1981	6,562,467	475,201	361,700	76%	113,501
1984	6,817,968	366,707	111,206	30%	255,501
1985	6,902,688*	120,728	36,028	30%	84,700
		85	85		85
		Σ 1,572,139	Σ 726,503		Σ 845,636
		71	71		71

# Structure of Housing Units by Yearly Construction Groups Before 1945

	1971:	1985*	Percentage of Stock
Before 1870 :	1,006,918 units	280,415 units	4.1%
1871 - 1899 :	1,280,820 units	1,280,820 units	18.6%
1900 - 1918 :	1,090,347 units	1,090,347 units	15.6%
1919 - 1932 :	725,543 units	725,543 units	10.5%
1933 - 1945 :	615,464 units	615,464 units	8.9%

\* 1985: estimated

Source: Computed from GDR Statistical Yearbooks, Staatsverlag, East Berlin, various volumes; NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 28/19 January 1986, pp 3-5.

A little more than 1.3 million of GDR apartments were probably linked to a central heating system (about 20 percent of total units).(35) However, in 1980, 72 percent of all apartments were still heated by solid fuel stoves in the rooms,(36) it is likely that 65 percent (more than 4 million units) still depend on this expensive and polluting type of heating (in the FRG in 1978 at most 40 percent).(37) Moreover, by the end of 1985 more than 2.2 million of all housing did not have indoor sanitation (32 percent),(38), while in the FRG in 1978 only 4 percent of housing lacked indoor toilets.(39)

Without a doubt party leaders had intended at the time the housing construction program was adopted to replace more of the old building stock by new construction. After all, even in 1974 (as mentioned earlier) the experts considered at least 2,6 million old housing units to be unfit for modernization and preservation. According to official intentions at the time, the housing deficit was to be abolished by 1980 and the number of households brought to correspond to that of available housing units.(40) In fact this balance was not achieved until 5 years later, though the median residential population dropped by at least 400,000 in the years 1971-1985.

Just about 1.2 million new buildings in the past few years (120,000 average per year) were in effect not enough to achieve the ambitious goals. After all, almost 86,000 new housing units were completed in 1961, at a time when industrial construction on the basis of slabs did not yet predominate. In the meantime 50 prefabrication works have been established, mainly of Soviet origin, with an annual capacity of construction components for more than 100,000 units. Considered from this aspect, the absolute housing construction record of almost 126,000 new buildings (1981), including more than 21,000 private homes, looks rather modest. It is only 47 percent above the best achievement of 20 years ago (the top FRG result was 714,000 new buildings in 1973).(41)

Even in the mid-1970's, GDR political leaders were able to discern that their original aim of primarily replacing the old building stock by new construction could be maintained only at the expense of the capacities allocated to commercial and representative buildings (such as the Palace of the Republic). They chose not to adopt that approach.



Nor did much relief come from housing construction itself, though basically only one standard type (WBS 70) was used. This largely cut down on the available living space and equipment (hardly any built-ins in halls or bedrooms, the plainest possible standard kitchen, the abandonment of tiles and, usually, of windows in kitchen and bathroom, the plainest possible sanitary fixtures, few balconies or patios, no second toilets in larger apartments, no facilities for retail stores on the first floor). The variety of facilities originally intended to be available on the first floor never came about, so that it should be possible to construct more quickly and simply.(42)

Defects in execution, often the consequence of night shifts, caused more problems. In the meantime more and more voices are raised to point out that quality standards should be observed even in industrial housing construction, oriented primarily to rapid quantitative growth. Serious defects and damage to outer walls and roof constructions are getting increasingly frequent. They are generated mainly by mistakes in the production of large panels for the insulating layer of the three-layer outside wall.(43)

Increasing complaints are also heard about "rising damp" on first floors, evident in 60 percent of the old building stock and as much as 45 percent of new buildings. This causes rising heating costs and in the long run adversely affects the stability of the buildings.(44)

Lastly, new industrial housing construction, concentrated in conurbations to save money and the preferred method used in the GDR in the past, has turned out to be actually injurious, because it is one of the factors contributing to the depopulation of rural settlements and small towns. The problems arising therefrom have been acknowledged and measures called for in the housing construction sector to help counteract this trend in internal migration.(45)

The poor performance of industrialized and other new housing construction almost necessarily resulted in a revision of the goals for the reconstruction of the old building substance. Earlier it was considered sufficient for the solution of the housing question to modernize some 500,000 units in old buildings in 1980-1990, after some resolute new construction was to have provided the appropriate conditions.(46) In fact, according to the current 1986-1990 plan, almost 85,000 housing units in old buildings are to be modernized.

Even in the last 5-year plan period, modernizations exceeded the results of the comparable period 1976-1980 by 48 percent (see Table 1). Indeed, in 1985 the total of 91,000 reconstructed housing units was more than double the result of 1979. This trend will weaken slightly but continue through 1990. New construction was planned at 3 percent less (593,000 units) than the result of the 1981-1985 5-Year Plan period, planned modernizations are to exceed the comparable result by another 26 percent (a total of 471,000 units).(47)

This gives rise to a major problem: By now the available old building stock is in even poorer shape than at the time when the housing construction program was enacted and held out little possibility for the future use of most old



structures. The much lauded low rents for apartments in old buildings meant that private landlords especially were not able by proper maintenance to counteract the decay of the housing substance.

Now the government has realized that far more old structures need to be preserved than had initially been assumed. It has therefore begun to move in that direction. In 1984 it started a sweeping "roof repair program" with the aim for "all roofs to be restored to a satisfactory condition" by 1987.(48) Private landlords will now be able to obtain government loans or even required to apply for such loans.(49) It is intended by 1990 to fundamentally repair roughly 25 percent of the entire roof area in the GDR.(50)

Increasing importance is assigned the industrialized reconstruction and restoration of housing in old buildings. Accordingly there is growing pressure for carrying out such work round the clock and reducing construction delays. The time limit for the reconstruction of an apartment building in East Berlin is 4 months, but some obligations assumed mention 7 weeks only.(51) Of course the equal treatment of new construction and modernization offers cost benefits. It also helps preserve familiar urban neighborhoods and their atmosphere.

Still, knowing how the modernization of old buildings proceeds in the GDR, we are bound to doubt that considerations of urban esthetics influenced the decisionmaking process. Earlier procedures indicate that modernization of old buildings is primarily regarded as a method to statistically achieve the targets set by the party leaders through 1990. If old buildings were really to be properly restored and brought up to modern standards, much more money and even more materials and time would be needed. Originally modernization was meant to "adjust (the usable housing substance) to the quality of new housing construction...All units are to be equipped with a bath or shower and toilet and, if possible, a modern heating system."(52) Indeed, there was a proposal at that time to count as modernizations only those projects that met the following basic requirements: Modern sanitary installations, several wiring systems, hot water supply and, at a later time, a modern heating system.(53)

At the present time we cannot help but note that many of the units in old buildings do not have convenient central heating even after their rejuvenation. Only around 210,000 (25 percent) of the 838,534 apartments modernized in 1971-1985 in fact got a proper heating system.(54)

An official resolution demonstrates the modesty of the criteria for modernized electricity connections. According to this resolution, some 600,000 apartments were to be converted from 6A (1.3 kilowatt) to 10A (2.2 kilowatt).

in 1973-1975, so that 65 percent of all housing should have 10A electricity and provide certain prerequisites for the kind of electrical appliances intended to be present in households.(55) This was resolved against the background of the fact that the energy need of households in the GDR tripled in 1960-1970, while a random poll of households showed a mean equipment of electrical appliances with a 5.2 kilowatt load.(56)

The installation of a shower or bath in housing units of old buildings often amounts to the simplest of all solutions: Cutting off a small space from the kitchen and putting in a bathtub or shower stall. This is much easier to do than the installation of central heating, inside toilets or the total renewal of installations. All this explains why 74 percent of all housing in 1985 had a bath tub or shower stall (Federal Republic at end 1982: 92 percent), while only 68 percent of all housing had indoor toilets (Federal Republic at end 1982: 95 percent) and, at best, 35 percent had central heating (Federal Republic at end 1982: 70 percent).(57)

#### General Evaluation

In quantitative terms, GDR housing construction has gone a long way to meet the party objectives through 1990 though, as far as new construction is concerned and especially in the last 5-year plan segment, at the expense of the "pertinent social facilities" also called or by the housing construction program.

At the same time, the construction output was achieved only at the expense of considerable qualitative cuts. Buildings were set more closely together to save site development costs. Rooms became smaller and now diverge so much from international standards that the GDR furniture industry needed to be told to design and manufacture furniture for the domestic market, that is oriented to the conditions of the housing construction program, in other words are space saving.

Success was certainly achieved in calming down the situation on the "housing market" for the authorities involved in the official allocation of housing to the population and gradually make available a housing unit to everyone in need. Still, the official allocation of housing space still proceeds as per social and economic priorities.(58)

At the same time the competent housing agencies increased their efforts to trace so-called "underused" living space and persuade the respective occupiers to move to smaller apartments. According to official information, there are 20,000-30,000 such underused units in Erfurt administrative district alone, while some 10,000 are overcrowded.

If we include the 1986-1990 plan target for housing construction,(59), about 2.2 million housing units will have been built from scratch in 1970-1990 and some 1.3 million reconstructed. In other words, 3.5 million units will have been provided by new construction or modernization. These results would respond to the objectives of the housing construction program. Assuming that the housing stock in the GDR will not increase much in the next 5 years so that new construction would largely replace old building stock, the following non-modernized old building stock would still remain at the end of 1990, despite all the efforts made: 700,000 units dating back at best to 1900-1918, 725,000 to 1919-1932 and 615,000 to 1933-1945. Consequently, the housing construction program would have had no direct effect on about 2 million units in old buildings, that is about 30 percent of the total housing stock.

The situation is far less satisfactory when considered from the aspect of quality. Honecker himself pointed out that 14 percent of all housing would still have neither bath nor shower and 21 percent no indoor toilets even at the end of 1990.(60) Moreover, more than 50 percent of all housing will still lack central heating. Honecker's report reveals that housing quality varies considerably in the regions. Melzer and Steinbeck's diagnosis, going back many years, is once more confirmed:(61) While, if the plan of priorities is observed, almost all East Berliners will enjoy baths and indoor toilets at the beginning of the 1990's, 17 percent of residents in the Schwerin administrative district, for example, will lack bath or shower, and 33 percent of residents in Dresden Bezirk an indoor toilet.(62)

Is it true to say in these conditions, that the housing construction program has solved the housing question as a social problem?

In connection with his bill to the housing construction program and the discussion of its quality, the GDR Construction Minister claimed this would "make it evident for everybody how we manage in such an important sphere of our life to demonstrate the superiority of socialism over the capitalist exploiter system."(63)

Almost 13 years have since passed. In the meantime the party no longer promises "his apartment" to everybody but "appropriate housing space" to each citizen. Following this statement and the hidden difference is the indication that, after 1990, "the improvement of housing culture will come to the fore."(64) This implies objectives that--just as the main economic task as a whole--will preoccupy the political authorities to the end of the century--and the population also, in one way or the other.

#### FOOTNOTES

1. Wolfgang Junker, "The GDR Housing Construction Program for 1976-1990," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND No 274, 4 October 1973, p 5.
2. Ibid.
3. Ibid.
4. Nikolaus Griebel, "Housing Conception for a Working Class Center," DIE WIRTSCHAFT, East Berlin, No 13/1974, p 14.
5. Hans-Ulrich Gramsch, "Thorough Preparation of the Reconstruction of Our Old Residential Districts," DIE WIRTSCHAFT, East Berlin., No 18/1974, p 14.
6. See Erich Honecker, "Resolutely Ahead with the Further Realization of the Eighth SED Party Congress Resolutions," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, No 147, 29 May 1973, p 6.

7. Collective of authors, "Das Materielle und Kulturelle Lebensniveau des Volkes und Seine Planung" [The Material and Cultural Standard of Living of the People and Its Planning], Dietz Verlag, East Berlin 1975, p 304.
8. Wolfgang Junker, "Our Housing Construction Program--the Most Important Sociopolitical Task," EINHEIT, East Berlin, Vol 29, No 4/1974, p 425.
9. In summer 1958, the Fifth SED Party Congress enacted the directive to the 1959-1965 Seven-Year Plan. Its main economic task consisted in catching up and overtaking the FRG by 1961 in the most important spheres of production and living standards. See Fritz Schenk, "Das Rote Wirtschaftswunder" [The Red Economic Miracle], Seewald Verlag, Stuttgart 1969, pp 84ff.
10. Dieter Richter, "The Large Socialist City--25 Years Urban Construction in the GDR," GEOGRAPHISCHE RUNDSCHAUL (publishers Adolf Korger, Hans Knuebel, Willi Walter Puls), Vol 26, No 5/1974, p 186.
11. Erich Honecker, "SED Central Committee Report to the Eleventh SED Party Congress," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 18 April 1986, p 5.
12. Karl-Heinz Gerstner, "GDR Intensification Strategy," tape of a Radio DDR broadcast, 17 March 1985.
13. The 1976-1980 plans provided for a spending standard of M58,000 for new construction (including the share in the cost of site development and community facilities in the residential districts), while the cost per modernized housing unit was to amount to only M18,000. See Wolfgang Junker, "The GDR Housing Program," as before, (note 1), p 6.
14. See Rolf Linke, "Private Home Building--International Estimates, Comparisons and Trends," ARCHITEKTUR DER DDR (published by the GDR Construction Academy and the Federation of GDR Architects), Vol 33, East Berlin, No 11/1984, pp 681-682.
15. The computable maximum admissible cost prices (including the share payable by the client) developed as follows:
16. See Rolf Linke, "Private Home Building...", as before (note 14)
17. See NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, No 77, 2 April 1986, p 3.
18. See Rolf Linke, as before (note 14).
19. Ibid.
20. Calculated from SUEDEDEUTSCHE ZEITUNG, No 279, 3 December 1984, p 20, No 61, 13 March 1985, p 27, No 243, 21 October 1985, p 24 and No 6, 9 January 1986, p 24.
21. SUEDEDEUTSCHE ZEITUNG, No 240, 17 October 1985, p 33.

22. While the IFO Institute (Munich) holds firm with regard to this forecast, the Kiel Institute for World Economics believes that the demand will shrink to 200,000 housing units in the last decade of this century. See FRANKFURTER ALLGEMEINE ZEITUNG, 15 August 1985; see also SUEDEDEUTSCHE ZEITUNG No 1, 2 January 1986, p 25.
23. Wolfgang Junker, "Our Housing Construction Program...", as before (note 8), p 425.
24. Erich Honecker, "The Heart of the Construction Worker Beats for Socialism," (speech to the East Berlin construction activist group), DER BAU, No 11, 26 May 1972, p 4.
25. Wolfgang Junker, as before (note 8), p 429.
26. See Wolfgang Junker, as before (note 1), p 6.
27. See SUEDEDEUTSCHE ZEITUNG, No 79, 7 April 1986, p 1.
28. The following were built in addition to new housing: 24 supermarkets, 8 service facilities (cleaners, post office, beauty parlour, service agencies for some consumer goods), 57 schools, 55 creches, 12 youth clubs, 12 club/restaurants, 12 gymnasia (for schools) and a public indoor swimming pool (including swimming for school children) in Marzahn city district. Compare with 62,000 housing units so far built in the city district. NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, No 17, 21 January 1986, p 6.
29. See BERLINER ZEITUNG, No 88, 15 April 1986, p 11.
30. "The Yearning for a Dacha Continues Unabated in the GDR," TAGESSPIEGEL, No 11870, 7 October 1984, p 32.
31. "The assembly line collectives of the housing construction combines succeeded in reducing the time needed to complete one apartment on the construction site from a mean 333 hours in 1981 to 282 hours in 1984." Willi Kunz, Wolfgang Salecker, "Performance Comparison and Best Value Orientation," EINHEIT, Vol 40, East Berlin, No 11/1985, p 987.
32. Erich Honecker, "The Construction Industry Outstandingly Contributes to the Strengthening of the GDR, the Preservation of Peace," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 15/16 June 1985, p 4.
33. "Houses in Good Hands at the AWG's," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND, 1 August 1985, p 3.
34. Federal Office for Statistics (publisher), "Data Report, Figures and Facts on the Federal Republic of Germany," series of the Federal Center for Civic Education, Vol 195, Bonn/Wiesbaden 1983, p 126.
35. According to VOLKSWACHT (organ of Gera SED Bezirk management) of 16 February 1985, 1.25 million housing units in the GDR had at that time been connected to central distance heating.

36. Karl-Heinz Schroeder, "Komplexe Energieversorgung von Territorien" [Comprehensive Regional Energy Supplies], VEB Deutscher Verlag fuer Grundstoffindustrie, Leipzig 1983, p 19.
37. Federal Office for Statistics, as before, (note 34), p 127. In 1982, roughly 43 percent of all residential buildings in the FRG (about 7 million) were equipped with stoves for heating, but only just about 30 percent (2 million) were fueled by coal or coke, the remainder using heating oil, gas and electricity.  
See "Statistisches Jahrbuch 1985 fuer die Bundesrepublik Deutschland" [1985 FRG Statistical Yearbook], Verlag W. Kohlhammer, Stuttgart 1985, p 228.
38. Erich Honecker, "SED Central Committee Report to the Eleventh SED Party Congress," NEUES DEUTSCHLAND No 91, 18 April 1986, p 5.
39. Federal Office for Statistics, "Data Report....," as before (note 34), p 127.
40. Hans-Ulrich Gramsch, "Thorough Preparation...," as before (note 5), p 14.
41. Federal Office for Statistics, as before (note 34), p 134.
42. In spring 1974, the GDR Construction Minister presented the new housing construction series (WBS 70) as follows: "It offers greater opportunities for raising the standard of urban construction, making apartments more spacious and adjusting them to various family sizes. Kitchens, for example, may be located inside or outside (without or with windows). The same construction component assortment allows us to house stores, medical offices, clubs, and so on, on the first floors of residential buildings." Wolfgang Junker, "Our Housing Construction Program....," as before (note 8), p 430.
43. See BAUZEITUNG, East Berlin, No 7/1985.
44. See BAUZEITUNG, East Berlin, No 12/1985.
45. See Hartmut Usbeck, "The Simulation of Possible Developments of the Urbanization Process in the GDR, Using a Multiregional Population Model," PETERMANNS GEOGRAPHISCHE MITTEILUNGEN (GDR Geographic Society, publisher), No 2/1985, Vol 129, pp 103-109.
46. See Hans-Ulrich Gramsch, as before (note 5), p 14.
47. See "Eleventh SED Party Congress Directive to the 5-Year Plan for the Development of the National Economy of the GDR 1986-1990," PRESSEBURO DES XI.PARTEITAGES (publisher), East Berlin, April 1986, p 46.
48. Wolfgang Junker, "The Housing Construction Program--The Core of Our Party's Social Policy," EINHEIT, East Berlin, Vol 39, No 9-10/1984, p 885.

49. See Michael Mara, "Financial Injections for Private Building Owners," TAGESSPIEGEL, No 11783, 26 June 1984, p 10.
50. Erwald Henn, "The Tasks of Construction Research Following the Eighth Construction Conference," ARCHITEKTUR DER DDR, East Berlin, Vol 35, No 1/1986, p 3.
51. BERLINER ZEITUNG, No 18, 22 January 1986, p 2.
52. Nikolaus Griebel, as before (note 4), p 15.
53. Hans-Ulrich Gramsch, as before (note 5) p 14.
54. BERLINER ZEITUNG No 24, 29 January 1986, p 3.
55. See "Joint Resolution by the SED CC Secretariat and the GDR Council of Ministers on Measures for the Better Supply of Building Repairs to the General Public of 6 June 1972," GB1 II/1972 No 35, 16 June 1972, pp 400-406.
56. Wolf-Dieter Hartmann, "On the Economic Analysis of Individual Consumption Processes as Foundation for Market Research and Long-Range Planning," WIRTSCHAFTSWISSENSCHAFT, East Berlin, Vol 21, No 2/1973, p 224.
57. "Zahlenspiegel Bundesrepublik Deutschland/DDR" [Data Mirror FRG/GDR], (Ministry for Inner-German Relations, publisher), 3rd revised edition, September 1985, p 85.
58. See "Decree on the Control of Housing Space--Housing Control Decree of 28 October 1985," GB1 I No 27 1985, pp 301-308.
59. See "Eleventh SED Congress Directive...", as before (note 47), p 46.
60. NEUES DEUTSCHLAND No 91, 18 April 1986, p 5.
61. See Manfred Melzer, Wolfgang Steinbeck, "Problems and Successes of the Housing Construction Program," DEUTSCHLAND ARCHIV No 1/1983, also Manfred Melzer, Wolfgang Steinbeck, "Interim Results of the Housing Construction Program," DEUTSCHLAND ARCHIV No 12/1983.
62. Erich Honecker, as before (note 11) p 5.
63. Wolfgang Junker, as before (note 1), p 6.
64. Erich Honecker, as before (note 62), p 5.

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## DAILY COMMENTS ON GERMAN-LANGUAGE RADIO STATION

AU261228 Budapest MAGYAR HIRLAP in Hungarian 25 Aug 86 p 5

[Article by Lenke Elek: "The Danubius Business--A Radio Station That Is a Self-Supporting Venture--Does the ORF Fear For the Advertisement Cake?"]

[Excerpts] A new Hungarian radio station, Radio Danubius, has been operating since 1 July and has been providing information in German to the foreign tourists around Balaton. This time it is worth taking a look at the radio station's economic affairs.

"We receive 1 billion, 100 million forints from the budget and we must manage for a year from this sum. We do not get more money for our new ventures and experiments, either. When we decided--years ago--to establish the Danubius radio station, we knew that it could operate only as a self-supporting venture"--says Laszlo Sarffy, economic director of Hungarian Radio.

"Danubius broadcasts primarily factual news (no commentaries), music, important information, and of course advertisements. It is through the advertisements that the station has become a profitable venture."

"Income from advertisements is extremely important for all radio stations in the world. Indeed, I have now come to believe in this well known fact. In the famous tourist business publication TOURIST AUSTRIAN we read that: "The station offers extremely advantageous advertising possibilities and thus represent serious competition for the ORF." [Austrian radio and television Service]

Andrea Petri, the foreign trade expert of the new radio station, says that "only two firms have so far come up with advertisements in the radio, the Austrian Milde Sorte and the Ibusz-Wien Tourist Agency.

"It should be no surprise that so far only these two firms have announced their advertisements, because Danubius started operation in July and there was very little time for preparation in spite of the fact that we have been waiting for the license for years."

"There are no other possibilities around Lake Balaton. The Austrian and FRG tourists would not have to wander from camping site to camping site for a place if they were informed about possible accommodation by the radio station. Radio Danubius, of course, is not supplying this information free of charge, the camping or hotel management would have to pay for the service. Small cooperatives and ventures can also advertise on the radio station but private persons cannot yet advertise."

## AUSTRIAN EARTH-DUMPING AGREEMENT EXAMINED

AU251424 [Editorial Report] Budapest NEPSZABADSAG in Hungarian on 22 August carries on page 6 a 1,100-word first part of an article by Andras Szigethy entitled: "The Documents of Poisoned Earth 1--Transports in Secret" and carries on 23 August on page 6 the 1,600-word second and final part entitled: "The Documents of Poisoned Earth 2--Is the Waste Dangerous or Not Dangerous?" Both of them deal with the issue of Austrians selling earth to Hungary for use as landfill.

In the first part, Szigethy quotes from an article written by Erich Cagran, published by the Austrian KLEINE ZEITUNG on 16 July 1986, which says that "the transported earth is contaminated with phenol" and is "taken to the neighboring country in secret." Szigethy then quotes from discussions with local people in Szentgotthard at the edge of the town where the earth is dumped and used to fill in an old section of Raba, which became marshy after the regulation of the river. Szigethy quotes from official documents of the West-Dunantul Central Water Management Office, which accepted the deposits of earth and debris from the construction of the Vienna metro. The contract was made by Nikex foreign trade company directly with the above office. The writer notes that before such a contract is made the experts' analysis should be approved by OKTH, the National Environmental and Ecological Protection Office. The profit Nikex hoped to make would be 400 Austrian schillings per cubic meter of earth and the amount referred to 'is approximately 80-100,000 cubic meters.' According to the first evaluation made by another office, the National Public Health Institute, the "contamination of the earth cannot be recorded, though the cadmium level" is in certain extracts "somewhat too high." The writer concludes the first part saying that "according to rumors, the transports will soon stop" but people know nothing about the reasons.

In the second part Szigethy deals with the positions on the dumping issue that the above-mentioned offices hold. The article begins with a quote from the initial decision of OKTH's North Dunantul Supervisory Branch, which says that "we do not approve of depositing the earth from the Vienna metro construction in the Orsegi Protected Country Region. The area referred to in the contract is not part of the protected region." This is followed by suggestions for measuring contamination and the planting of vegetation suitable for such ground. The writer also quotes the decision that calls for halting the earth transportation until the permit is received. Szigethy continues the arguments of both sides, and notes that the West-Dunantaul Central Water Management Office lodged an

appeal against the decision. He also notes that environmental protection is a new industrial branch and people in Hungary must face the problem of wastes. Szigethy writes that popular sentiment has been stirred now for the second time since the rubbish dumping case in Mosonmagyaróvár recently. In addition, people can become extremely indignant and they already say things such as "we are not the rubbish depot of others." Szigethy writes that this "suits the propaganda of our ideological opponents" who say that "we are so poor that we even endanger our environment for hard currency." Szigethy stresses the fact that people in the affected area were not informed and were completely ignored as regards the decision. He calls for a more careful decisionmaking and proper information in order to "attain a decision based on science and public consensus alike."

/12232

CSO: 2500/475

## TEXT OF POEM THAT CAUSED CLOSING DOWN OF JOURNAL

[Editorial Report] In an interview published in Budapest MAGYAR NEMZET in Hungarian 9 Aug 86 p 7 Deputy Minister of Culture Gyorgy Vajda said that the semiofficial literary journal TISZATAJ was closed down because of a series of unspecified policy or political errors by the editors, who are all communist party members. Paris AFP in English at 1258 GMT on 11 August reported that the decisive factor was a poem in the June issue that evokes the 1956 revolution through references to treachery and betrayal 30 years ago, and condemns the present "miserable compromise". The literal translation of the poem by Gaspar Nagy in Szeged TISZATAJ in Hungarian June 1986 p 10 goes:

## From the boy's diary

...and there in the starry night the costly judas tree with its thirty  
year-rings whispers: silversummer trembles  
whispers on the path tread by the shady delegates  
and distinguishes them with scattered silver pieces  
according to their just deserts...  
...and what if whimpering attacking cowardice should come  
the hokus pokus of horror?--then under your window will arrive  
the young and old of the miserable compromise  
like evangelizers who'll stop at nothing  
and the putrid smell will pour in: the peace of the stomach stuffed to bursting  
and the stagnant cloudy light of eyes filled with promises...  
...all you have to do is believe it...but you don't believe  
that precisely they managed managed to escape from the masquerade  
that precisely they are the independent dogs who perfect  
that superfluous growling-biting on ideology-free bones...  
I don't know how I can go on bearing the shame  
that we looked at the same sky river ant-hill  
while my heart beat differently I blushed from different causes  
my hand formed a fist for different reasons and to me that very same tree  
looked different crackling-snapping-swaying proudly  
burdened by the heavy memories of our silvering years  
but even if more shameful things fall to me I can only say:  
as long as the eye lives you must see, my brethern!...

In the same issue an essay by Matyas Domokos on the poetry of Gaspar Nagy ends with the phrase, "in this way the word again can, again will, become a weapon."

POLITICS

HUNGARY

BRIEFS

BRITISH COMMUNIST OFFICIAL--On Monday [25 August] Matyas Szuros, secretary of the MSZMP Central Committee, had a discussion with Jack Ashton, member of the Political Committee of the Communist Party of Great Britain, secretary of the party's Scottish organization, who is spending his holiday in our homeland. At the meeting, held in cordial and comradely atmosphere, they reviewed current issues of international affairs and the condition of relations between the two parties. [MTI report: "Matyas Szuros Talks with Jack Ashton"] [Text]  
[Budapest NEPSAZBAD SAG in Hungarian 26 Aug 86 p 5 AU] /12232

CSO: 2500/475

## MILOSZ SPEECH ON EUROPEAN EAST-WEST DICTIONARY CRITICIZED

Warsaw SZPIKI in Polish No 29, 17 Jul 86 p 14

[Text] The church press tries in a number of ways to emphasize that Poland is part of Europe. The political sense of this is that Warsaw and even more so Krakow, are closer to Rome than Moscow, regardless of what the map says. Before long, they will be claiming that Christ was a European and Marx an Asian, rather than the other way around. In the underground press, Asia is an epithet. They write that Asia has swallowed up Poland but that the opposition is protecting our country against Asian influences and bringing her closer to Europe. The program of defending Poles against "Asiatization" has been defined as the building of a (n.b.) second Japan.

The greatest European among Poles, Czeslaw Milosz, was born in the old pre-war eastern provinces of Poland and now lives in America. His January 1986 speech at Michigan University on the European nature of Poland and the other socialist countries began with the words: "I feel that there does exist something like Central Europe despite the fact that this is denied by many persons starting with journalists and politicians who refer to her as Eastern Europe and ending with my friend Yosif Brodsky who calls it Western Asia". Milosz goes to great pains to shift Poland toward the West forgetting that in doing so he is taking her further away from cherished relatives in Wilno. The historical irony is that it was actually the communists, in other words the very personification of Asia and the East, that actually shifted Poland geographically toward the West. Meanwhile, the anticommunists have always said that communist policy was aimed at pushing Poland towards the East even though the West was and is her world.

Adenauer said that Europe ends at the Rhein River which marks the beginning of a wilderness. For our opposition, the term "western" means everything good, correct and civilized while the East stands for all that is bad and barbarous. However, stubborn fate has set Eurasia's eastern boundaries at Japan, a country with a most advanced civilization, while the western border is in Portugal whose only technical achievement has been the use of rifle barrels as flower vases.

A particular characteristic of modern European thinking is Eurocentrism in its view of the world. For me, the wisest thing that has ever been written about that subject is "The Sorrow of the Tropics" by Levi-Strauss, a Frenchman of non-European extraction. Our pan-European opposition is like the 18th-century gentry who took their dirty feet and drunk heads to Paris or Italy to touch

civilization. They believed that one should not comb the tangles out of their hair because that leads to illness and that the Polish nobility is descended from the ancient Sarmatians.

Our opposition is insisting on Poland's European nature in a period in which the political, economic, military and cultural center of the West is found in an ever less European America. Technologically speaking, Japan is most advanced. The spiritual fashions of youth in the USA and Western Europe are oriental in nature and the world has been taken over by the sounds of American Negro music. The seat of world literature and soccer is Latin America and the regions most recognized as having the greatest economic opportunities in the future are Siberia and some other areas of Asia. Europe is only a continent that is poorly reproducing. I knew an African lawyer who did not feel that English was a European language. After a brief exchange of views, however, he did admit that he completely forgot that the British also speak English.

It is also true that mankind did not first appear in Europe nor did that continent give the world paper, the alphabet, gunpowder or the atomic bomb. Neither did the automobile, television or computers come from Europe. However, the knife and fork and coat and tie are most definitely European inventions. If one were able to eat an eel with one's bare hands and the CEMA nation's joined most of the rest in the world in freeing office workers from having to wear a coat and tie, I would have nothing against Europe. Now, however, I have European civilization stuffed down my throat 18 hours a day.

For hundreds of years, the jacket and its forebears have tortured the men of Europe and of Europeanized societies. Everything has changed but this idiotic invention survives in the full nonsense of its empty form symbolized by the lapels that have never served any need of function ever. The dumbest European idea has achieved a lasting international career which has turned out to be more ephemeral than all of its political revolutions. The Russian Revolution tried to eliminate the jacket but it came back and is more strongly entrenched in the Soviet Union than anywhere else. The jacket was excommunicated by the Chinese Revolution but present-day Chinese have taken off their blouses and are putting on that garbage.

Our Catholic activists wear jackets forgetting that they were also worn by Marx, Lenin, Freud and Boy and are also worn by Barcikowski, Lopatka and other antichrists. Christ never wore a jacket and neither does the Pope. No one ever sees paintings of saints in jackets, overcoats or frock-coats.

If jackets were to be excommunicated from the pulpit, that might finally be a useful anathema. Of course, the Church will not do us any such favors because it feels that Poles must be European in every way with the exception being that they reproduce like Asians.

Mister Milosz, Eastern Europe ends where people stop using the word Europe as a term of luxury and elegance. In other words, Western or proper Europe begins where the European complex ends. That, however, is not a precise diagnosis. Actually, the whole world is suffering from various European



complexes. There are many of these complexes and they have their varied sources. African have various complicated postcolonial complexes about Europe as an old and more productive fatherland. Western Europeans suffer from a complex that their continent may be a backward and dependent province burdened with its sanctified past. That in itself is similar to the complex that Krakow has within Poland. Eastern Europe also has its own complex of having to prove its relation to the rest of Europe.

Almost every Pole travels to the West with the intention of proving that he can direct a symphony orchestra as well as a German (provided the former is, of course, a conductor), can dress, behave and get around just as well as the locals of his own age and social standing, has the same intellectual horizons and political beliefs as his hosts and is capable of flushing a toilet as well as anyone else. The projection of these complexes gives Western Europeans (who also have an unjustified belief in European superiority) the conviction so dear to Poles that the latter are indeed different but are very similar to real Europeans and very fervent imitators of all things European.

There are some admirers of Europe that really despise her for various reasons. In London, Rome and Paris, theories are born about how Poland really belongs to the West because of Curie-Sklodowska, Chopin, Paderewski, Polanski and Gerek. It is quite curious that the Polish intellectual who faithfully attends church in Poland to show his affinity to Western Europe stops going once he has made his way to the West because he then wants to show that he is no different from anyone there.

Appropos the ability to flush a toilet, let me relate a very intimate experience of mine. For 20 years, I worked here in Eastern Europe in a certain institute and cultivated our habit of coming to work for short periods. One reason I did so was that I did not know how to flush the toilet at my place of employment. Years later, someone showed me how to flush our Eastern European device. It turned out that I had to grab the pipe leading from the reservoir down to the seat and jerk it down.

Functioning in our civilization is therefore something harder and more ambitious than becoming familiar with the ways of the western world. Other employees used the same toilet but did not flush it. They then travelled to Western Europe to discharge their cultural complexes by presenting university lectures in foreign languages about the very European character of Polish culture and thinking.

12261

CSO: 2600/610

## DEMOCRACY, RULE OF LAW ISSUES AT CONGRESS EXAMINED

Warsaw RZECZYWISTOSC in Polish No 30, 13 Jul 86 p 2

[Article by Jerzy Pardus: "On the Subject of Democracy"]

[Text] On Tuesday, 1 July, in the third day of deliberations, the delegations to the Tenth Congress held discussions within the framework of their 14 problem groups. I happened to take part in the second group, which debated the topics of democracy, law and order, and other related questions.

The columned hall of the Sejm, where the deliberations took place, was filled to overflowing--for in addition to the delegates, there were numerous invited representatives of departments, institutions and scientific and practical disciplines, whose activity is connected to the thematic parameters of the group. Jozef Baryla, secretary of the Central Committee, chaired the deliberations. He had no trouble encouraging those assembled to participate (which could probably also be said about the other groups); for more than 80 persons spoke in the discussion. This resulted in the first stipulation, that pronouncements be short and concise, and also in the appeal that all those who did not succeed in taking the floor, place their statements and suggestions in the minutes.

The course of the discussion is, no doubt, already known from reading the daily press, and so I have no need to refer to specifics.

However, certain currents appeared in the discussion which, I think, are characteristic of the state of consciousness both of the party and of society as a whole.

On one side there were advocates of tightening the laws and practices of jurisdiction, especially in regard to those who avoid work, the "free birds" who remain parasites because of loopholes in the law, who bypass its rules or even break them. On the other side, there were those who said that often the process of passing new laws is too fast and too frequent and that we are too quick to accept changes in the rules of law, which have not yet had a chance to be transformed into legal custom before they are revamped or changed. They maintain that we are faced with excessive legal repression.

Some of those discussing law and order threw the legal consciousness of the citizens into the balance, which must often be built up from its foundations. Respect and proper applications of the rules of law by the organs of government is also necessary. It was mentioned that--despite the fact that we have taken a significant step forward in this matter--we are still dealing with a situation that allows "equals and more equals" in regard to the law. An indignant tone was struck especially among the delegates representing heavy industry at the unfounded differences in professions--not resulting from work contribution or quality, but from cunning and scheming. Comrade Wozniak from "Patafag" in Wroclaw stated that the the difference in professions should only result from the the effects of honest work. His statement was met with applause in the hall.

The tremendously important problem of the relationship between the government and the citizens was not absent from the discussion. Comrade Rozanski from Katowice Province, in speaking of the fashion for using the word "pathology," stated jokingly that in one sense pathology could be smoking cigarettes in this hall, and also wearing miniskirts. However, the pathology of leaders is real, more specifically those representatives and regional administrative functionaries living far from party headquarters and willingly returning "to the old ways." This thread ran clearly throughout the discussion, evidence of concern in this matter by both the delegates and the outgoing Central Committee (see its report announced by Wojciech Jaruzelski), as well as the delegates.

There was no lack of concrete proposals for revamping specific laws, forecasts for regulating the jurisdiction of some government organs, and straightening out regulations.

Both the chairman of the sessions and the discussants pointed out the disproportionate number of regulations in the law, normative statutes of a lower order, sometimes contradicting the laws. Several times the so-called "duplicator laws" were censured, laws which are unknown to the citizens and known only to the government. They are the occasional creation of legal data through the agency of circulated letters, which, despite the fact that they do not have the character of legal regulations, some director will try to enforce them as such as a favor asked in the letter...

The range of problems addressed, the precision of formulation and the strong proposals are proof that these phenomena are universally known, and that there exists a will to introduce changes.

12972

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## CHURCH BLAMED FOR 'FAULTS' IN POLISH 'CHARACTER'

Poznan WPROST in Polish No 30, 27 Jul 86 pp 6-7

[Book review of Wschod, Zachod i Polska (The East, West and Poland) by Andrzej Wasilewski, by Marek Z. Szczepanski]

[Text] Why is it that the collective thinking of Poles still reveals so much irrationality, wishful thinking, domination of emotion over cold logic and parochialism combined with a belief in Poland's historical mission in which suffering and calamity are some sort of distinction? Can we find the origin of such attitudes in history? Does the tradition present in the popular knowledge of various social groups (with all of its simplifications, stereotypes and distortions) explain what sort of people we are, how we think and where we get our patterns and our national symbols and values?

Andrzej Wasilewski, the author of the well-written book "Wschod, Zachod i Polska" which has found its way into the WPROST bestseller list, gives an affirmative answer to these questions. His style of writing which in places becomes quite controversial, describes the way of thinking about our people, state and society that is typical of many if not most of our compatriots:

"In what country of modern Europe can one without appearing ridiculous propagate the belief that his nation's sufferings will be rewarded by a supernatural force? Is there any modern society that associates its collective problems with the intervention of mystical forces? Where is collective irrationality possible on such a scale that it leads to the feeling that an act of faith can have an effect against forces, the laws of economics, the rules of politics and the political rulers?"

These are, of course, rhetorical questions because we do know that one encounters just such attitudes in the land between the Bug and Oder rivers. However, I would not go so far as to generalize and insist that everyone or nearly everyone thinks in this way or that these are the historical and eternal traits of our "national character". However, A. Wasilewski's book uses examples from Poland's past and remote past (as far back as the time of the Piasts) to support just such a contention.

How does the author explain the appearance of such national shortcomings? In his opinion, the chief factor in the formation of this national syndrome was and is Poland's relative backwardness among the other European nations. This has led to reactions similar to the psychological mechanisms of the individual such as anxiety, fear, discouragement, seeking compensation in the world of the supernatural and inferiority complexes. According to the author, the other factors were poor political orientations and a stubborn insistence on allying Poland with the West instead of the East in which "...the Polish desire to attain a western level of civilization was always best realized whenever Poland relied politically on the East. It has been hardest of all for Poles to understand the simple truth that their country could best exploit the benefits of western civilization when politically allied with the East".

In this case as well, I am not entirely confident in Wasilewski's reasoning. Is this an historical generalization or just a tendency? I do agree that our pro-French or pro-English sentiments have often led us astray and that we should seek our alliances close to home and among our neighbors. However, this has not always been possible or beneficial in every historical situation. I do not, for example, understand what benefit Poland could have gained from Russia during the time of Catharine II? As history has so well shown us, the pro-Russian Confederation of Targowica marked the beginning of the end of Polish sovereignty. Perhaps, A. Wasilewski would say that it was too late to take up a sensible policy because Poland in the middle of the 18th century was neither an independent political entity nor a partner for the East. Were the cultural affinity for what is modern and progressive in the West as well as the strong attachment to the old national and Christian tradition not a form of self-defense against loss of national identity during the partitions? The questions go on and on. I do not wish to get tangled in historical polemics, especially when the more than 1000 years of our history can provide examples that will confirm many different ideas. Jerzy Trypolski in *NOWE KSIĄZKI* and Bogulsaw Kunda in *ZDANIA* have already discussed this problem very competently.

Without doubt, there have been periods in our history in which A. Wasilewski's ideas and interpretations are quite fitting. It is also hard to not admit that these ideas have left their own vestiges in popular thought to form an entire complex of prejudices, simplifications, black-and-white thinking, phobias and resentments that are echoed under various circumstances and as the historical, social and political situation changes. This chronic denial of geographical politics is also accompanied by counter-reformation which we have strangely compounded with our own unique sense of romanticism. Artistic and esthetic romanticism became applied to politics and we saw this reflected in the notions of Poland's acting as a "bulwark" and in Polish messianism as well as other such irrational doctrines.

While I may acknowledge the correctness of many of A. Wasilewski's views, I must still say that history does not explain everything.

There are nations that have had histories even more complicated than ours and have still reached a high level of civilization, education and culture. We must look for the sources of Polish irrationalities not only in tradition but also in contemporary life and above all, in our material living conditions,

organization of work and production relations. We must also look at the influence of various institutions that influence popular thought such as schools, the mass media and the church.

If, despite the fact that economic reform has already been introduced, the employees at many places of work do not see any connection between their own efforts and the company's economic situation and their earnings, hard, efficient work is hindered by an excess of legal (administrative, fiscal, etc.) regulations and is also subject to informal interference and excessive control, this causes worker frustration, discouragement, a search for other forms of activity, a tendency for people to shut themselves off within the circle of family and friends and also encourages the growth of irrational beliefs.

Naturally, this is not a typically Polish phenomenon. In economically highly-developed nations, one also notes signs of a return to mystical ideas and the creation of alternative subcultures opposed to modern technical civilization. However, in such countries, these phenomena are an expression of opposition to the functioning of the efficient technical production machine and consumerism. In Poland however, I think that people are demanding to be able to buy and own material goods and this is not an attitude that runs counter to the demands of efficiency and competitiveness. On the other hand, this attitude in Poles is contradictory in nature and is not effective as a means of motivating efficient action and is in many ways joined with certain elements of both lay and religious ideas and with traditional values and national symbols.

Therefore, it is in the organization of work and our production relations that we must look for the source of our irrational beliefs. Public awareness, both contemporary and traditional, is also very significant and provides the "food for thought" of ready irrational patterns. However, these concepts do adapt themselves to social conditions rather than vice-versa. The conditions under which we live shape our thoughts. For that reason, anywhere that wages, profits and assessment of the results of work are mythical categories that are arbitrarily manipulated independently of the laws of economics, the conditions are perfect for irrational thought and action.

This does not mean that institutions systematically influencing public awareness (such as schools, the mass media and the church) are not responsible for either encouraging or discouraging the growth of irrational beliefs. If, for example, they continue to present history as a set of wars or national uprisings without saying much of anything about famous Polish inventors, merchants or industrial figures, then it is not at all surprising that the pattern of a patriot is based on desperate battle rather than quiet and pragmatic work. If the mass media continue to perpetuate the idea of spasmodic work campaigns aimed at some ideal, it is hard to complain that most work is not carried out consistently. If we see increasing numbers of so-called miracles such as crying trees and specters in gardens which must later be officially denied by the church and many groups of seemingly responsible people believe in the early end of the world (which is supposed to pass by the faithful who will identify themselves by hanging white sheets in their windows), this means that the church has much to do.



Irrationality has more than one name. It manifests itself in different ways among different social and professional groups. It is also not expressed in any one philosophy or version. One can therefore have various views about the origins of moral standards or life after death and still act constructively and sensibly in this world and life. At the same time, any one philosophy has followers with rational and pragmatic views as well as extremely irrational believers. I think that in this case, it is not the recognized "ultimate" values that have the strongest influence but a knowledge and ability to practically implement certain rules (directives) for effective economic and political action. If chaos, irrational thinking and magic dominate over any directives for effective action, this creates a dangerous situation. That is something we must remember.

12261

CSO: 2600/610



## POLLS ON CHURCH APPEALS FOR SOBRIETY

AU261204 Warsaw PRZEGLAD KATOLICKI in Polish 24 Aug 86 pp 1, 3

[Article by Antoni Bielewicz: "Polls"]

[Excerpt] Despite the various shortcomings of public opinion polls, it seems that the results of the 1984 Warsaw and Krakow and of the 1985 Lublin polls on the church's appeals for sobriety in the month of August produced a number of general conclusions.

The Polish Episcopate's appeals for sobriety are of recent origin, but they seem to have been firmly anchored in the awareness of society. The 1984 and 1985 polls show that at least 80 percent of the adults in Warsaw, Krakow, and Lublin knew of those appeals and consciously adopted certain attitudes toward them. In some cities the appeals even led to confrontation between the order-keeping bodies and members of the sobriety fraternities picketing liquor shops, which was certainly the first event of its kind in our postwar history. Many such pickets were tried by lay courts. When C. Gans of AP asked J. Urban whether there was a conflict between Wojciech Jaruzelski's declared sympathy for the church's appeal for sobriety and the large fines imposed on the pickets, J. Urban replied: "We support the church's efforts to combat the plague of alcoholism, but no matter how noble the aims that inspire the persons who organize gatherings in the street, certain administrative regulations have to be observed, including permits for street meetings. The fines in question were administrative fines."

The results of the polls show that the church's appeals for sobriety in the month of August enjoy relatively wide support among our people. The appeals were supported by about one-third of the Warsaw, Krakow, and Lublin adults, which is a large number, especially if we consider that about 20 percent of the respondents could not have expressed their acceptance for the appeals because they are teetotalers.

The outcome of the polls can be regarded as a contribution to the discussion within the church on how to formulate the August appeals. Some people think that such appeals should call for abstaining from all kinds of alcohol, and some that they should call for abstaining from vodka and for moderation in drinking wine and beer.

The polls seem to indicate that the other alternative is more reasonable because it enables more people to accept the appeals and does not close the door to those who plead for total abstinence and to those who are for limited abstinence. A more radical formulation of the appeals may decrease their acceptance by about 10 percent, meaning those people who are unable to practice total abstinence.

/9738

CSO: 2600/669

## BRIEFS

CARDINAL TO STOP AUSCHWITZ PROJECT--PAP, Geneva--AFP and AP report that representatives of the Catholic Church, including Cardinal Macharski, and of the Jewish community met in Geneva to discuss the disputed question of the Carmelite convent on the site of the Auschwitz-Birkenau death camp. According to AP, the meeting published "an unprecedented declaration," which recognized the two camps as "symbolic places in which the Nazis tried to exterminate the Jews." AP also states that Catholic leaders are supposed to have agreed to halt the convent project until a comprehensive decision on its future is made and that a new meeting of the same representatives would be held to devise "satisfactory ways of respecting the unique site of the camps." According to the sources mentioned by AP, "Cardinal Macharski has changed his position on the convent and agreed to halt the construction work in this connection, thus stressing the temporary nature of the project." As the press has already reported, Jewish organizations the world over have been demanding for the past few months that the Carmelite convent that has existed in the vicinity of the former death camp be liquidated in view of the fact that institutions connected with religions other than Jewish should not operate on the site in which Jews were exterminated. [Text] [Warsaw ZYCIE WARSZAWY in Polish 25 Jul 86 p 4 AU] /9738

CARDINAL MACHARSKI IN ISRAEL--Cardinal Franciszek Macharski, the metropolitan bishop of Krakow, visited Jerusalem as a pilgrim on 17-19 July 1986. The visit, which was organized by Pater Marcel Dubrois from the Hebrew University in Jerusalem, was given much attention by the Israeli press. The journalists who published detailed descriptions of the visit stressed that Cardinal Macharski is a personal friend of the holy father. Cardinal Macharski visited the Jerusalem Yad Vashem Institute dedicated to the 6 million Jews murdered in various concentration camps during World War II. [Text] [Warsaw SLOWO POWSZECHNE in Polish 23 Jul 86 p 1 AU] /9738

CSO: 2600/669

## HISTORIAN OUTLINES GOALS, COMMENTS ON PAST PROBLEMS

[Editorial Report] Iasi CRONICA in Romanian No 31, 1 August 1986 publishes on pages 1-2 an interview by Gheorghe Buzatu with the historian Mircea Musat whose title is a quotation from Musat: "Let us give the reader a chance to convince himself of the historical truth."

Buzatu asks several questions during the interview. In response to one question about the problems that go with the profession of historian, Musat answer that "I became aware of them while a student at the University of Bucharest during 1953-54 when, as is known, we were forbidden access to the works of our great predecessors and the history of our country was mutilated and falsified." However, Musat continues, "the IXth Congress of the Romanian Communist Party and the presentation of Comrade Nicolae Ceausescu in May 1966--given on the occasion of the 45th anniversary of the founding of the RCP--constituted for me as well as the rest of the historical profession a great opening towards the truth, towards writing history the way it was." Asked to summarize Romanian foreign policy during 1919-1933, Musat said: "Romanian foreign policy during this period focused on the creation of a system of alliances to guarantee Romania's territorial integrity, independence and sovereignty against fascism and revisionism, to strengthen the role of the League of Nations and create a climate of peace and understanding."

Commenting in response to a question about the major research objectives in the field of Romanian history, Musat said: "New steps must be taken to produce works of synthesis on essential problems such as: the place of Romanians in world history, the intellectual and material civilization of Geto-Dacians, the evolution of the Romanian state, the history of Romanian peasantry, of small and large cities, of craftsmen and of commerce. Similarly, it is important to study the history of the Romanian people in relation to the great empires of the day, the material and human efforts made to defend the existence of the country; to research the condition of Romanians living in conquered territories and especially during the Austro-Hungarian dualism; the history of the first and second world wars and the peace conferences that followed." Asked about the reception of Romanian historians at the International Congress of History Sciences held in Stuttgart in 1985, Musat answered: "Romanian specialists enjoyed the appreciation of those foreign colleagues who love historical truth and who wish to turn its study into a vehicle for bringing people closer together, for cooperation and mutual respect."

/8309

CSO: 2700/289

## WRITER REPORTS ON LITERARY DEBATE

[Editorial Report] Bucharest LUCEAFARUL in Romanian No 32, 9 Aug 86 publishes on page 3 a 1,300-word article by Vasile Macoviciuc entitled "Noua geografie literara" ["The New Literary Geography"]. The article is a survey of a debate "initiated under the auspices of the IXth Congress of the Romanian Communist Party" on a host of issues pertaining to literary life and criticism. Participants in the debate, according to Macoviciuc, argued for critical directives in favor of a "national culture which combines harmoniously tradition with innovation and an active cultural memory with creative initiative." "This is criticism of a different caliber," Macoviciuc continues, "which incorporates the ideological requirements of our socialist times into its framework."

Participants in this debate also sought to debunk several myths, among them "the myth of a frozen hierarchy of contemporary creative artists," "the myth of tradition as an inertial source--which must fall in the face of thematic invention," and "the myth of absolute innovation (often a sign of playfulness)." Macoviciuc spends a bit more time with a fourth debunked myth "that literary creativity irradiates outwards from a center towards the provinces" a myth which must fall because "literary forces of first rank are independent of location and assert themselves in several parts of the country." He quotes with approval a statement by Petre Pandrea to underscore his point: "Goethe's Weimar wasn't that much bigger than Mizil, nor Pericles' Athens than Craiova. It's all a matter of people and their ability. In the provinces only the strong succeed and it's harder to pretend. The weak have always had contempt for the provinces. There the eternal rules of humanity must be strictly observed. The monotony of the provinces is transformed, in the big city, into the sedentary life of the coffee house and the tavern, where prolonged and effective human contact is impossible."

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## WRITERS UNION ANNOUNCES PRIZES

[Editorial Report] Bucharest LUCEAFARUL in Romanian No 32, 9 August 1986 announces on page 6 Writers Union awards for 1984, 1985 and 1986. Academician Alexandru Rosetti received the Grand Prize of the Union for 1984, while the writer Radu Boureanu received this prize for 1985 and the writer Mihail Cruceanu received it for 1986. The writers Constantin Ciopraga, George Ivascu, Adrian Marino and Gellu Naum each received the Special Prize of the Union for 1984; the writers Alexandru Balaci, Zoe Dumitrescu Busulenga, Paul Everac and Gyorgy Kovacs received this prize for 1985; and the writers Maria Banus, Ion Banuta, Paul Georgescu and Lajos Letay received it for 1986. Dumitru Radu Popescu, president of the Writers Union, handed out the prizes. Fellow writers described the contributions of those honored.

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POLITICS

ROMANIA

SCINTEIA ARTICLE ON PROTECTING STATE SECRETS REPRINTED IN WEEKLY

[Editorial Report] Bucharest CONTEMPORANUL in Romanian No. 33, of 15 August 1986, publishes on page 6 the text of an article which appeared in SCINTEIA on 6 August 1986, page 2, entitled "Intarirea vigilentei si combativitatii in apararea secretului de stat, a cuceririlor revolutionare ale poporului" ["Strengthening Vigilance and Militancy in Protecting State Secrets and the People's Revolutionary Achievements"]. CONTEMPORANUL is edited by the Council for Socialist Culture and Education. Excerpts of this article appeared in translation in the FBIS DAILY REPORT, Eastern Europe, 8 August 1986, Vol II, No. 153, pp. H6-H7.

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## BRIEFS

MEDIA MEDIOCRITY REBUKED--At its latest meeting, the central directorate of the GDR Journalists' Association called for raising the "level" of GDR media. In his speech, the assistant chairman, Eberhard Heinrich, pointed out that the GDR citizens' need "to be better informed in order to have a say" was growing. Interest in international events was also claimed to be on the rise. For that reason, the GDR media would have to "make new efforts in this area." Heinrich called on GDR journalists to discuss "how we can root out mediocrity and boredom, how we can express in our media with consistent journalistic effectiveness what is politically correct." He claimed demands on "quality of format" also needed to be increased. As the chairman of the GDR Journalists' Association went on to state, his organization is taking on the task "of shaping the entire process of expanding and heightening consciousness more effectively and with greater expertise." He said it was essential "to convey the proper awareness of the international situation, which is extremely contradictory." Representation of this inconsistent situation calls for "great circumspection." Moreover, Heinrich demanded that GDR journalists "look beyond the limits of specialties." In a central directorate resolution, one of the tasks set is "to increase journalists' substantive knowledge" and to step up their advanced training "to raise the quality of journalistic work." [Text] [West Berlin IWE TAGESDIENST in German No 126, 16 Aug 86 p 1]

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